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THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

WE have recently read a declaration of doctrine on the Bank of England, which has filled us with no small surprise. The rate of interest has fallen ; and a great authority has taken advantage of the fact to enlighten the world on the status and the duties of the Bank. A national character has been claimed for this great commercial company ; it has been invested with national attributes, and in return it has been charged with the responsibility of a national function. It is spoken of as an institution of the country, entrusted with a public interest of high importance, and consequently bound to act in the spirit of a great public official, thinking little of itself, and much of the good of the people.

We confess that we did not expect to hear such things from such a quarter. Can it be possible that the real nature of the Bank of England is unknown ? Before 1844 one can understand how confusion of thought and error on this matter should have prevailed ; the various functions of the Bank were so mixed up together that it required some reflection and science to analyse and distinguish them. But, since the Bank Act of 1844 it is strange indeed that any writer versed in finance should entertain any misconception of the true character of the Bank of England. Had the point been doubtful, there was one interpreter at least at hand, whose authority in such a case was supreme, and who has laid down a perfectly clear exposition of the subject. We are not believers in the currency doctrines of Lord Overstone ; we think the circulation theory a grand delusion, an ingenious and empty fallacy, and nothing more ; but we are quite sure that he thoroughly understood the nature of the measure, which he persuaded Sir R. Peel and Parliament to enact, and that his representation of the real position which it has given to the Bank of England is entirely accurate. Nothing, too, can be more lucid than his explanation ; and any one who will take the pains to refer to the evidence which he gave before the Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1857, will find the genuine character of the Bank of England stated once for all.

"The Bank has a national function," we are told, "it keeps the sole bullion reserve in the country." Lord Overstone teaches us that it has neither the one nor the other. Since 1844 the Bank of England is purely and absolutely nothing more than one bank amongst many, the greatest of English banks, because it has the greatest capital and the largest customer ; but, in its relations to the mercantile world, to the State, and to the public at large, it is completely similar to every other bank. It is not the issuer of the notes which bear its name, it supplies the mechanical agency—paper, cellars, offices, clerks—for which it receives a certain payment ; but it does nothing more. The notes are not the Bank's one jot more than the London and Westminster Bank's. Every banker, every man in England, has just as much control over the bank-notes as the Bank itself. The Issue Department must, by law, give notes to any man who brings it gold for them, and the Bank itself can do no more. It cannot get hold of a single £5 note in any other way than by giving five sovereigns for it, and every man, Englishman or foreigner, can do as much. So again, the Bank cannot put its hand on the gold in its own vaults, except by bringing notes to the Issue Department. What the Bank can do, so can we, so can any banker or trader. The gold does not belong to it but to the Issue Department—a very different body, which is governed by rules which are

not framed by the Bank Directors, but are as stringent against the Directors themselves as against any other man in the land. It is perfectly untrue, therefore, that "the Bank keeps the sole bullion reserve in the country." It keeps nothing of the sort. The bullion does not belong to the Bank any more than it does to us ; it belongs to every man who possesses notes, and has a mind to get gold in their place.

Neither have the operations of the Bank a particle more influence in increasing or diminishing the reserve of bullion than those of any other bankers. Indeed, it is a capital mistake to suppose that the quantity of gold at the Bank depends in any way on bankers. They have nothing to do with it, startling as the assertion may seem. Banks are merely intermediate agents in the money market ; they obtain the command of capital from one set of persons and transfer it to another ; but they do not employ that capital themselves, nor regulate its increase or its diminution. Those who have surplus supplies of food, tools, clothing, and other commodities become lenders in the money market, and their unemployed supplies are disposed of in London, or elsewhere, by the agency of banks. These lend their deposits to merchants and traders, who can find use for his capital ; they advance them on bills, by the help of which the merchant carries off to foreign countries the products which we do not consume ourselves, and bring back in return tea, sugar, or other things that we want. It is plain that all this capital does not belong to the bankers ; they did not make it, they do not use it, they cannot make it greater or smaller ; all that they can do is to act simply as brokers towards it, and to bring together the man with corn and clothing, which he has no means of using, and the man who has the power of using them profitably in some new field of labour. When capital is abundant relatively to the demand for it, the bankers find that bills are scarce, and they are compelled to submit to low rates of interest, that is, to low remuneration for the loan of the capital ; when it is scarce, then it is the turn of the traders to compete for it, and to give high discount, in order to obtain it.

With respect to the bullion, its amount depends almost entirely on the balance of trade with foreign countries ; and it is quite certain that neither the Bank, nor all the bankers together, have any influence over it at all. A bad harvest necessitates the purchase of large quantities of corn in foreign countries ; and if foreigners do not meet it with an equivalent amount of purchases in England, no power in the country can prevent the gold from being drawn out from the Bank and remitted for payments abroad. Supposing the directors were to stand upon their grand "national functions," and resolve that the gold should not go abroad, what could they do ? They could not prevent the traders in coin from sending in notes for gold to the Issue Department ; and that department would set at nought all the threats and exhortations of the directors. "The traders shall not get discount for their bills." Very well ; they will simply apply elsewhere. "But all the bankers will do their duty, and guard the sacred treasure, by refusing discount to every merchant intending to remit gold abroad." They may not always be able to discover the intentions of their customers ; but supposing that they could, what would be the result ? Simply that the merchants of the foreign countries which had corn to sell would themselves send the grain to England. It would be bought in the English markets by millers and bakers, whose funds would be drawn from the public itself, either in the form of coin, or else of notes, which must be cashed at the Bank,



or of cheques which must be paid in gold or notes by the bankers. The attempt to prevent this would be futile; and the notion that the Bank can do anything whatever to keep gold in its vaults is radically absurd.

The real issuer of Bank-notes, and the guardian, but not the regulator of the reserve of bullion, is an officer of the state in the guise of an automaton machine, which has no will or intelligence of its own, but which simply performs a mere mechanical operation. When people bring it gold, it deals them out notes; when they come with their notes, it fetches up the gold, and gives it away in return for the notes. It acts like a steam-engine, which drives a train forwards or backwards, according to the direction given to its wheels. In the engine room, the Bank Directors are as much strangers as any member of the community seen there for the first time. The engine obeys the public and the public only; and the public is guided solely by its wants. When it requires the gold for exportation, it will have it in spite of all the bankers in the world; when it has no use for it, it returns it into store against a future day.

It follows, from this explanation, that, as the Bank derives no benefit from the gold or the notes, but stands in the same position as every other bank, neither has it any special "duties" whatever towards the public; its sole business is to conduct its affairs with the same skill and prudence, and by the same rules, as any other great bank. A time might indeed by possibility occur, when the Bank would have a direct interest in the notes. As a payment for various services which it renders the Government by managing the National Debt, taking charge of transfers, paying the dividends, and other like matters, the law allows the Bank to circulate 14 millions of notes, without making a corresponding deposit of gold at the Issue Department. It derives a profit from the use of the 14 millions of capital which the public has lodged with the Bank in order to obtain possession of the notes; and this it receives as a remuneration for the work it performs for the State. So long as the circulation of notes does not fall so low as 14 millions, the Bank is an unconcerned spectator; there are five sovereigns in the Issue Department for every £5 note in circulation above 14 millions. But, that figure passed, the gold is gone from the Issue Department, and it becomes the affair of the Bank to provide gold for the notes presented out of these 14 millions. But this is a danger which is not conceivable, except in the case of the country being invaded by a foreign army—a case for which it is impossible to make a special provision beforehand. Under the pressure of the most severe crises since 1844—and none that preceded them equalled them in severity—the reserve of gold in the Issue Department has never sunk below about 8 millions—an immense height above zero—of gold, and 14 millions of notes instead of 22.

It is right that these facts should be duly appreciated by the country. Nothing is so common as criticism on the conduct of the Bank, in respect of the rate of interest which it charges to its customers, as if it had received some peculiar privileges from the law, and in return was bound to sacrifice itself to the public. The first thing that speculators overtaken by a rise of interest commonly do is to abuse the Bank; but why not abuse equally the great joint-stock banks or the private bankers? It is a serious misfortune when writers of some authority in finance give countenance to such delusions and such injustice. It is very possible that the Bank may at times deal somewhat hardly with its customers, and, still worse, may mistake the signs of the times, and encourage an unfounded confidence in speculators; but so also do the other banks; and after all, it is the public's own affair, and if they make unwise ventures, they have no right to lay the blame on their advisers. If the Issue Department were located where it ought to be, in Somerset House, the errors we have combated could scarcely have come into existence. It would then have been clearly seen that the Bank had no concern whatever in the issue of notes, and that it was only an ordinary banker, with a large capital and one excellent customer.

THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA AND THE AMERICANS.

FORT SUMTER had scarcely fallen into the hands of the aggressive South Carolinians, than Mr. Secretary Seward announced to all the Monarchies and Empires, States, Dominions, and Powers of Europe, that their interference in the quarrel, in any shape or way, would be deemed an insult; that the United States were quite competent to manage their own business, and to reduce the rebellious South to obedience, without the aid, the sympathy, or the advice of the Old World, or any portion of it. "Hands off!" was the cry; "and keep your sympathy or your advice until we ask for them." But Great Britain, against whom this manifesto was principally directed, took it in good part. She was too nearly related to the parties, and too much interested in their peace, to interfere with advantage in a violent domestic quarrel. The opinion and feeling of the nation were indeed abundantly expressed on the subject, and no secret was made of the disapprobation with which the English people in general viewed the conduct of those who had provoked so unreasonable a quarrel, and had brought a Republic that seemed to have so

magnificent a future before it to such a deplorable collapse. But the Government held scrupulously aloof, and its example was followed by France and the other Powers of Europe. Mr. Seward was taken at his word. Europe looked on amazed and sorrowful, but did or said nothing that in the slightest degree could be supposed to savour of interference between the belligerents.

The Emperor of Russia, however, has seen fit to break this silence, and Prince Gortschakoff, by command of his imperial master, has addressed a letter to the Baron de Stoeckl, who has worthily and with great acceptance represented the court of St. Petersburg at Washington for many years, which the latter has read officially to the President, in the presence of Mr. Secretary Seward. As the Czar needs no cotton from the South to feed the hungry mills that do not exist in Russia; as he is scarcely, if at all, interested in the issues of the strife, except as a benevolent bystander, his letter was received with respectful deference, and Mr. Seward was instructed to acknowledge the "profound sense" entertained by the President of "the liberal, friendly, and magnanimous sentiments of his Majesty." The sentiments are identical with those which every man of sense and feeling, and which every public journal in Europe that has devoted any attention to the matter, has expressed since the first outbreak of this deplorable war. We need, therefore, not stop to compare the spirit of Mr. Seward's original notification to the European monarchies with that of his very proper reply to the Emperor of Russia. Yet we cannot but ask, if it had been Great Britain instead of Russia which had sent such a letter to the President, whether its reception would have been equally deferential and cordial? We are afraid not, and incline to believe that if Earl Russell and not Prince Gortschakoff had written the note, Lord Lyons would never have had an official opportunity of reading it. Both North and South would have forgotten their feud for a short breathing time, and have joined in fulminations of wrath against the intermeddling and selfish power that was jealous of the "Great Republic;" that cried peace when there was no peace; and that had no soul for anything but cotton.

Whatever may be the motive or the policy that dictated so friendly and undiplomatic a communication on the part of the Russian Emperor, we cannot believe that it will have any sensible influence on the calculations of the disputants, or the fortunes of the struggle. Passion rather than reason governs the world at the best of times, and more especially during a period of foreign or civil war. If it had been a question that mere reason could decide, the South would never have seceded. If, at a later period, when the Secession had become so great a fact that it was impossible to undo it, the North had been amenable to reason, it would have acknowledged with a good grace what was unalterable, would have comforted itself with the enjoyment of its own free soil and free institutions, and allowed the South to go its own way, and to make the best of the curse of slavery that hangs to it, like the weight on the back of a man who is struggling in the billows. But reason has long since been expelled from the councils of both parties; and its voice, though it speak with the accents of a great and friendly emperor, will sound in vain amid the din and bitterness of the battle.

The Emperor warns the President—as the press of this country has done repeatedly—that the struggle can neither be indefinitely prolonged, nor lead to the total destruction of either of the parties. But neither the North nor the South is in the humour to see this truth as the Emperor sees it, and as all the friends and customers of America in this country have seen it from the commencement. "Sooner or later," he adds, "it will be necessary to come to some settlement, whatever it may be, which may cause the divergent interests now actually in conflict to co-exist." "Doubtless!" the South will reply; "but not until our triumphant arms shall have captured the city of Washington, and dictated peace on the steps of the Capitol." "And doubtless!" the North may also answer in a similar spirit of unreasoning pride and passion, born of the smoke and bloodshed of war, "but not until we have wiped out the disgrace of Bull's Run, laid Virginia under fire and sword, and defeated the arrogant South in a great and decisive battle, that shall prove to it, once and for ever, the superiority of the North." The truth is that the belligerents have not yet suffered sufficiently to tolerate good counsel. They have heard such words before, and despised them. The counsel given them by the Emperor has been given them by the public opinion of Europe, not once, but a thousand times, and uniformly in vain. Almost the identical words employed by the Czar have been employed in this journal. "The American nation," he says, "would give proof of high political wisdom in seeking a settlement before a useless effusion of blood, a barren squandering of strength and of public riches, and acts of violence and of political reprisals, shall have come to deepen the abyss between the two parties of the Confederation, to end definitely in their mutual exhaustion, and in the ruin, perhaps irreparable, of their commercial and political power." If the Americans of either party were in possession of a calm judgment, and could see their own quarrel as it is seen by the rest of the world, they would find in the singular community of sentiment between such divergent powers as the Emperor of Russia and the

press of England, a striking proof of the folly and inutility of the war into which they have plunged.

We are afraid, however, that the Emperor of Russia has not thoroughly studied the early history of the American Republic, and that he does not quite understand the real questions that are at issue, when he states, as a plea for the restoration of the Union, that for more than eighty years "it has owed its independence, its towering rise, and its progress, to the concord of its members;" and that "in spite of the diversity of their constitutions, and of their interests, and perhaps even because of their diversity, Providence seems to urge upon them to draw closer the traditional bond, which is the basis of the very condition of their political existence."

The agitation now daily increasing in Poland might have proved to the Emperor, had he been inclined to look at home, that diversity, either of interest or of feeling, is a strong motive power that impels to revolution. The Pole is not so different from the Russian as the Alabamian or the Carolinian is from the New Englander; and in America, from the days of Washington to those of Lincoln, there has always been a struggle between two conflicting and irreconcilable elements—that of local independence, or State rights, and that of the Federal power, or centralization. It is not so much a question of slavery that separates the North and the South, as is shown by the whole actions of the Federal Government in its handling of the slave question, as one of local against central authority, that has produced the collapse of the American Union. The Czar ignores, or has never heard of this question, but as the war proceeds he will have ample opportunity of learning that slavery is a mere accident to, and parasite of, the main issue, which is, in fact, identical with that for which the Poles are, in a different way, contending at this moment,—the right of separate existence and of separate government for a nation that has no sympathy or moral bond of union with another nation that seeks to control it.

NEW ZEALAND.

TO comprehend the existing state of things in New Zealand, it is by no means necessary to enter into the labyrinth of minute circumstances which persons interested in enveloping the subject with obscurity have constructed around it. The question is sufficiently intelligible if contemplated from an elevated point of view, as statesmen should consider it. A theory not wholly in accordance with any strict principles of justice has long obtained currency in this country, and has led directly or indirectly to most of the destructive wars in which we have been engaged with native tribes in our growing colonial empire; namely, that when savage and civilized races are brought by events into juxtaposition, the former are necessarily doomed to eventual extermination. By propagating an opinion so monstrous, we prepare the minds of colonial governors to expect from the outset nothing but strife with the aborigines, whom they look upon as multitudes destined to extinction; and easily reconcile their consciences to a process which they have been taught from the cradle to regard as inevitable. Had this pretentious theory been accepted by the Romans, our British ancestors would have been exterminated as a matter of course, since to those conquerors and civilizers of our island, the Britons of the reign of Claudius appeared in much the same light as the Maori of New Zealand do to us.

At the present moment the difficulty is to delineate a policy by which past errors in the colony may be retrieved—by which the Maori and the English may be again brought into friendly relations with each other, and by which the peaceful spread of civilization may be insured. The two great causes of hostility are the inordinate appetite for land on the part of the colonial government, and the desire of the Maori to set up for their own advantage a king to watch over the administration of justice, and settle differences between contending tribes and individuals. Out of these circumstances have arisen two movements among the natives: one, the formation of a land league to prevent the reckless alienation of real property by weak or dissolute individuals; the other, a political association, having for its object the securing to the various tribes a recognized head, who may enforce the observance of law and order, and check those desultory outbreaks of passion to which all communities in a low state of civilization are liable. In these proceedings of the Maori there is nothing to justify the harsh conduct of the colonial government towards them. Had reasonable pains been taken by the English authorities, no hostilities would have taken place, the matters in dispute would have been submitted to arbitration, English law and English customs would gradually have made their way into the native districts, and the colony would have been incalculably strengthened by the aggregation of large bodies of industrious, energetic, and brave men to the English population. By following a course of wise forbearance, this humane result is still attainable. Experience ought long ago to have taught the leading men in the colony that there is necessarily much difficulty in bringing our ideas of justice into harmony with those of tribes which have not yet emerged from the savage state. Jealous of our predominance in their country, yet unable to prevent it, they may be pardoned for breaking forth occa-

sionally into paroxysms of distrust and anger which a wise government would treat with leniency, and rather seek to soothe and calm the agitation of their minds, than drive them to despair by a rigid application even of the principles of justice.

False notions either of honour or of policy now alone obstruct the termination of the difficulties between the public authorities and the native chiefs; it is thought beneath our dignity as a great nation, to tolerate the petulance and endure the waywardness of the aborigines. It is precisely, however, because we are a great nation, that we might afford to make these concessions to our less enlightened countrymen, which we must now regard the New Zealanders, since they recognize the same sovereign, profess, in most cases, the same religion, and are anxious to enjoy the same laws with ourselves.

The history of the late transactions in the northern island clearly fixes some portion of the blame of the existing rupture upon the English authorities, none of whom, whether civil or ecclesiastical, have acted with quite the discretion that might have been looked for from them, though the errors into which they have respectively fallen have been widely different in their origin. The leading native chief, to whom the colonists have absurdly given the name of William Thompson, a calm, prudent, and considerate man, would unquestionably have effected a pacification had he been met by the military commander and by the Governor in a conciliatory spirit. Instead of acceding to his reasonable demands of a cessation of hostilities during the period of negotiation, they persisted in continuing operations, and refused, except under impossible conditions, to enter into such conferences as might have led to an amicable settlement.

In proportion to the progress made by the natives in knowledge, sacred or secular, must be the strength of their conviction that the colonists as a body desire that their race should pass away, in order that their rich possessions may fall into the hands of the strangers. To prevent this result is undoubtedly the aim of the New Zealand clergy, but, instead of adopting the means best adapted to fulfil their benevolent design, their zeal has betrayed them into a policy totally at variance with their wishes. The mania of nationality which has occasioned so much mischief in Europe, having been imported into New Zealand, is there producing analogous fruits. The true interest of the natives would be best consulted by converting them as soon as possible into Englishmen, consigning their ancient traditions to oblivion, obliterating the marks of difference between them and their neighbours, teaching them to speak the same language, to regard the history of England as their history, and to be rather ashamed than otherwise of the reminiscences of their days of cannibalism, when their greatest achievement was the eating of their enemies, and when what might be called their popular literature had little else to commemorate than bloody feuds and debasing superstitions. It would be just as rational to endeavour to reconcile with English civilization the ancient mode of culture and tillage, manufacture, and dress, as to preserve under the same conditions the ancient language. Barbarous dialects are of no value, and their preservation can only tend to perpetuate ideas inconsistent with social progress. So far, therefore, the colonial clergy may be said to throw impediments in the way of civilization, while in other respects they are earnestly labouring to give it force and efficacy. It must be for the home government, by its wisdom, to direct their exertions into a better channel. Up to the present moment nothing has been done towards creating a school of statesmen qualified to develop an enlightened colonial policy.

In all our outlying provinces, we observe a strong tendency to disparage and irritate the subjugated races, and make them feel their inferiority, to insult their pride, and diminish their self-respect; and it was therefore hardly to be expected that a wiser course should be inaugurated in New Zealand. Nevertheless, if we hope to escape the condemnation of posterity, we must put a stop to the system which is perpetually involving us in miserable wars, which cost millions to the mother country, and which are recklessly engaged in by the colonists because they neither defray the expense, nor in their own persons share the hazard. The first step towards bringing about a better state of things would be to remove the choice of Governors as far as possible out of the circle of family influence; to make the entering upon a war, except strictly for defence, to depend entirely on the decision of the home Government, and to throw its dangers and its burdens upon the colonists themselves. This would effectually check that fondness for strife, and that inclination to tyrannize over barbarous races, which constitute the greatest stains on the character of our countrymen in distant settlements and dependencies. We desire to be reckoned in the world a great Christian nation, bent upon diffusing the blessings of good government and civil and religious liberty far and wide over the world, and it must be acknowledged that, upon the whole, we deserve to be so considered; still, our conduct as a people is not always consistent with this proud aim, and in New Zealand especially lies open to censure. The war in which we have there involved ourselves was unjust in its origin, and has been conducted in a manner by no means calculated to make the world forget its objectionable source. The sooner we put an end to it, therefore, the better.

AGRICULTURAL ASSOCIATIONS.

AT this time of year, the completion of the harvest naturally calls together the members of the Agricultural Societies of the different counties, to celebrate their triumphs, or to assuage their disappointments by flowing cups, duly seasoned with exhortations more or less connected with the objects of the societies, from the magnates of the district. Two of these meetings were recorded in Thursday's paper, at one of which the principal spokesman was Sir E. B. Lytton, Colonial Secretary in Lord Derby's Government; in the other, the chief part was played by Mr. Walter, the member for Berkshire; and it is curious to see the different estimate made by these two gentlemen, both ranking highly in general estimation, of the matter proper to be addressed to a body of country gentlemen and tenant-farmers assembled together to promote the prosperity of that branch of trade in which the latter are wholly occupied.

As is due to his office, we will take the Privy Councillor first. The rule of all such associations is that politics shall be excluded from their discussions. But Sir Edward, after just acknowledging the existence, and, indeed, the propriety of the rule, as one which prevents party differences from marring the harmony of such meetings, ignores it altogether, and plunges headlong into politics, discussing the affairs of nearly every country in the world, and delivering his opinions on them with a frankness which, if amiable and engaging, is nevertheless somewhat liable to question on the score of discretion, provided at least that the speaker is to be looked upon as one who is still a candidate for office in the event of any political changes. On the subjects of Austria and Italy, indeed, he is but giving expression to the approval universally felt in this kingdom of the liberality shown by the Emperor of Austria in granting a new constitution to his people, and to the joy with which all classes, except that represented by Sir G. Bowyer, have beheld the consolidation of Italy into one free and powerful monarchy. If while discussing this latter question, and the country of Tasso and Petrarcha, of Dante and Ariosto, he cannot quite forget that he too is a poet, we may forgive his rhapsodies in consideration of the candour with which he admits the merits of the Government, to which he is himself generally opposed, in dealing with the foreign policy of the kingdom; and in consideration also of the force with which he impresses on his hearers the doctrine that, though "some of us may doubt whether Sardinia has been either prudent or honourable in her annexation of Naples, whether Hungary or Austria be in the right in the dispute between them; yet there can be no doubt whatever that these are questions which Italy and Austria should be left to settle for themselves."

On the subject of America he is more diffuse; and his remarks will attract the more attention because the view he takes is one which, in part at least, has not, that we know of, been promulgated before. It is not impossible that he may be correct in his opinion, founded, as he finds it, on historical experience, that the true cause of the American rupture is to be discovered, not in the question of slavery, not in that of the difference of race and conflicting interests, but in the mere size of the territory till lately collected under one single dominion; but which he now believes destined to form several states, "at least four, and probably more than four." He believes, indeed, that such division as he predicts is not only necessary for the preservation of the peace of the world, and of the liberties of Europe, but is also highly desirable for the welfare of each of the divided parts. He reminds us truly, that "it was by her own vast extent of dominion that Rome first lost her liberties," after having destroyed those of all the rest of the then known world. He argues that similar extent of dominion in America must in time inevitably have produced a similar feebleness in her executive; but now, when divided or subdivided, as he prophesies that the States must be, he predicts, also, in eloquent terms, that "the action of emulation and rivalry between one free state and another, speaking the same language, and enjoying that educated culture which inspires an affection for all that enlightens and exalts humanity, will produce the same effects upon arts and commerce, and the improvements in practical government, which the same kind of competition produced in the old Commonwealths of Greece."

We might be inclined to demur to the accuracy of the historical parallel. And it is some evidence of the wisdom with which such subjects are by rule excluded from discussion at such meetings, that his brother member, Mr. Puller, felt compelled to declare his dissent from the inference which he drew from it; but we may well agree with him, and be obliged to him for the lesson which he seeks to inculcate on the admirers of democracy, that the whole state of things now existing in America, the entire suspension of both liberty and law in the moment of danger, the bewilderment and dismay of the American President, his distrust of his own troops and officers; in fact, the anarchy which seems established, if anything may at present be said to be established in that country, abundantly proves that "in those acts of good government which can preserve freedom in the hour of danger, and enable a nation to right itself by the brains and the hearts of its own children, America has more to learn from England, than England has to learn from America."

We have no space to notice the well-earned praise bestowed on the patriotic energy of our Volunteers, or on the not undeserved pane-

gyric with which the speaker reviewed his own share in the establishment of the important colony of British Columbia. We must turn to Mr. Walter, who, though far from indifferent to political subjects on proper occasions, shows, we think, a sounder judgment in keeping them out of sight at the Wokingham meeting. Sir E. B. Lytton did, in fact, look upon himself as speaking not to his hearers, but to the country at large. But Mr. Walter thinks only of his actual audience; and speaks to them not as a statesman, or a student of history, though in either capacity he would not be without some claims on their attention, but as a plain country gentleman, taking a deep interest in their pursuits and welfare, and guided in his correct appreciation of that interest by sound practical common sense. In fact, he looks upon such associations as that over which he was presiding, as bodies which, "unless they tend really to encourage good husbandry, have no right to show their faces before the public."

Some of his hearers, if we mistake not, must have been half inclined to controvert his idea, that to drive a plough straight is not only a more praiseworthy, but also a more difficult operation than to drive a four-in-hand; but none will disagree with him in the assertion that "the foundation of good husbandry is good ploughing;" nor, if that assertion be correct, can any refuse him due praise for giving that art the place of honour before such an assembly. We may see the practical turn of Mr. Walter's mind in the prizes given by the Wokingham Association, the most important of which are for skill in ploughing, rick-making, thatching, rearing lambs, &c.; all of them being operations which appear simple only to those who are wholly unacquainted with the details of successful farming. And also, and perhaps even more, in the disapprobation which he expresses of other classes of prizes, some of which are purely ridiculous; while others, if the ridiculous character does not make harmless, can hardly fail to be mischievous. There may be no sentiment in the view which he expresses of prizes for long service, but there is abundant sense.

He tells his hearers, and there were many farm servants among them, "that a servant is entitled to no particular credit for staying with a good master; it is a mere matter of sense on his part." Not that he would have such servants without their reward. He fully recognizes length of service in one place as a proof of the goodness of the servant, but he contends that it is "the duty" of his own master to reward him, and that his goodness cannot, even by the light of the corroborative testimony of long service, be judged of by the world at large. Those meetings which offer prizes to the purchaser of the greatest number of sheep, &c. &c., he likens, with fair sarcasm, to a brewer who might offer rewards to the man who drank the greatest quantity of beer, or to a chemist who held out a similar inducement to an unlimited indulgence in salts or senna. Altogether, perhaps, the sobriety and intelligibility of his views may be well gathered from the moderation of the terms in which he proposed the toast of the evening, with which he concluded—"Success to the Wokingham Agricultural Association, so far as it tends to promote agriculture, and is consistent with common sense and propriety." Just so far do we join with him in wishing it success; but we may add, what the speaker's modesty did not permit him to express, that while such associations are under the guidance of such presidents, whose kindly feeling towards them and their objects is as fully proved by the judgment and firmness which they show in preventing them from wandering into courses unconnected with their proper aims, as by the sympathy and liberality with which they promote their legitimate objects, there is no fear that they will ever be inconsistent with propriety, or will fail to promote the prosperity of agriculture in a very important degree.

THE "IDÉE NAPOLEONIENNE" AT NAPLES.

WRITING in the spring of this year on the then position and prospects of Italy, we ventured to differ from the ideas at that time generally prevalent both to the north and the south of the Alps, so far as to express an opinion, that of the three obstacles which stood manifest and menacing in the path of Italian unification and consolidation—these three being the fate of Venice, the Roman question, and the Neapolitan difficulty—the latter would be found to be the most immediately dangerous and the most urgent. And the events of the last few months have very completely justified our prediction. But we did not at that time foresee, nor imagine the possibility, that the two latter would be found to be connected together so closely and by such a bond of union, as that by which the one has been brought to bear upon the other. We quite understood the duties of France as "Eldest Son of the Church," and the necessity of securing the spiritual well-being of Frenchmen by maintaining the chief of their Church in the independent position of a sovereign prince, at the cost of providing him with a population of victim subjects bound hand and foot to be reigned over.

We had no difficulty in understanding the admirable unity of sentiment which, on this point at least, exists between the French Emperor and almost every class of his subjects. All this was clear enough. For though a poor heretic's untutored mind might have

failed in comprehending a devout Frenchman's need of a bishop busied in atrociously misgoverning the despairing people of a distinct part of Europe; yet it was intelligible that no French citizen or Emperor should wish to see Italy a powerful and united nation. Whatever of the sibylline imperial utterances respecting the wishes, plans, and intentions of France as regards the Italian question may have been proved to have been false, there can be no doubt that the memorable declaration in the French Senate was strictly true, in which the Emperor protested to his people that, from the beginning of the Italian movement, he had left no stone unturned for the prevention of Italian unity. Steadily, perseveringly, indefatigably, recommencing his repeatedly foiled efforts with the patience of Sisyphus at his ever unsuccessful task, the Emperor has not failed in his duties to France in this matter. We can understand *a priori* that he naturally would so act; and we have seen that with unvarying pertinacity he did so act on every occasion that presented itself.

But what we were not prepared for, what we believe Europe was not prepared for, was the mode in which the possession of Rome has been made to subserve the purpose of playing a last stake for the disunion of Italy in Naples. Nobody was surprised at the part the Papal Government has played in this matter. There is, it is true, an additional and specially revolting feature of monstrosity in the spectacle of a sovereign calling himself the Vicar of Christ on earth, claiming, on the score of his supreme religious duties and functions, an immunity from the action of those laws which govern the conduct and destinies of other potentates; and taking underhand advantage of every resource of his mingled temporal and spiritual power, for the purpose of sending fire, slaughter, anarchy, and all the horrors of civil war into his neighbour's territory, and that for the purpose of upholding and restoring a government of which the surpassing iniquity forced even brother despots to flinch from the odious task of defending it in the face of Europe.

The story of these things will appear wholly incredible to our posterity. Nevertheless Europe has not been even surprised at the conduct of the Pope and his "Curia" with regard to the kingdom of Naples. Europe has grown gradually to the knowledge of what popes and their governments are. Men expect them to act after the nature of their kind. But it was not prepared to see France abet, aid, and find her account in this conduct of His Holiness. And the surprise that has been felt at the attitude of France at Rome, was a great, though, as it appears unhappily, an unmerited compliment to France, the nation. Yet it is difficult to see why different conduct should have been expected from the French Emperor. When Napoleon III. first stepped out on the stage of Europe in the new character of a liberator, a breaker of chains instead of the forger of them, a friend of humanity, and benefactor of oppressed nations, there were steady, unimpulsive men, holding a moral principle to be as infallible and irreversible as those of physical science, who marred and interfered with the general enthusiasm and rejoicing, by gravely shaking their heads, and maintaining that for all that, Europe would most assuredly *not* gather grapes from thorns or figs from thistles. But such kill-joys were not listened to. In Italy especially the sombre and disagreeable forebodings were scouted. People did not think it possible that France should make herself the accomplice of her "Holy Father," eldest son as she was, in the iniquity of the means adopted to prevent the regeneration of Naples. They thought the French Emperor, at all events, too wise a man—this Emperor who "understood the spirit of the age!"—to outrage the public opinion of Europe by a course which has not only revolted the universal moral conscience of the civilized world, but has placed in a very humiliating position a vainglorious nation, dangerously apt to bear a grudge against a ruler who has humiliated her.

But the thistles have once again consistently brought forth only prickles; and now, at least, the entire action of Imperialism in the matter is clear; it is plain that a continuous stream of men and arms could not possibly be sent out from Rome and the surrounding territory, occupied as it is by the French troops, without their knowledge or permission. No evidence is needed to prove this. But the particular cases in which bodies of the French soldiers have refused to see what was passing under their noses, or to act on information even when forced on them, are of constant recurrence, and are related by the Italian papers in a reluctant sort of tone, which shows how strongly they feel the hard necessity of still pretending to consider the Emperor their friend and ally. Well and truly may the Emperor say, that to the last he has neglected no means of impeding the consolidation of Italy into a powerful nation! No scruples of conscience, no shrinking from the responsibility of perpetuating barbarism, anarchy, and violence throughout the length and breadth of a large kingdom—no thought of all the misery and all the guilt called into existence by this patronage of the spirit of evil in its struggle with good, has deterred him from trying also means of liberating France from the danger of a nation of twenty-six millions establishing itself next door to her, which was so feelingly expressed by one of the speakers on the memorable occasion of the debates on the address in the French Chambers.

But it would seem as if the Emperor's Italian policy were fore-

doomed to failure! Point after point, the game has gone against him! And now this last effort, made at the cost of character, reputation, and the sacrifice of the last remaining shreds of Italian good feeling towards France, seems about to prove equally abortive. Yet the scheme was one which might well have succeeded. The Neapolitan provinces were of course, for many reasons, the most difficult part of Italy to be united to the rest of the Peninsula. They are inhabited by a race more markedly different from all the other Italian people than is the case with any other province—a race more backward and ignorant, less civilized, less known to the rest of Italy, and less capable of self-government. The atrocious system of corruption and misrule which had kept the people barbarous, left behind it masses of population, which could not but become the source of very serious embarrassment to the new government. A beaten, demoralised, and desperate army; a corrupt and equally desperate bureaucracy, whose occupation and means of livelihood were gone, when the rottenness on which parasitically they grew and thrived had been cleared away; an anti-national clergy, the sworn enemies of liberty in every shape—these were valuable elements for the rendering of good government under the new rulers impossible. And the plan concocted under the protection of French bayonets in the Farnese palace at Rome was not an unpromising one. To send forth successive hordes of paid desperadoes from the safe shelter of the Eternal City; to excite by such means as wide-spread alarm and confusion as possible; to represent sedulously that the confusion so produced was equivalent to a declaration that the Neapolitans repented them of the vote which had united them to the rest of Italy; to provoke reprisals by means of unheard of barbarities; to invent much and exaggerate more, and then to cry aloud with well-affected horror against the severity of the hard-pushed government;—all this was well-imagined enough for the attainment of the object in view. Yet the latest accounts from Naples assure us that Cialdini is rapidly triumphing over the difficulties thus raised in his path. Brigandage and disorder have been very nearly rooted out. Firmness, vigilance, and activity, have succeeded in neutralising the immense advantage secured to the Papal-Bourbon-French conspiracy by the possession of an unattackable asylum on the other side of the frontier. And once again the Napoleonic idea has failed to realize itself.

Under these circumstances it begins to be reported, that the French troops are to be withdrawn from the territory still remaining to the Pontiff around Rome, that the Italians are to be permitted to occupy also this part of their country, and that France will henceforward limit herself to the occupation of the Eternal City itself and Civita Vecchia. Whether this report of the partial liberation of Italy from the curse of the French occupation be or be not more true than all the others to a similar effect which have preceded it, and have been one after the other falsified, there are as yet no means of knowing. But if it should turn out to be true, that—as the waiters on the Napoleonic providence phrase it—"the time has now come" when the Emperor, in his inscrutable wisdom, feels that he can permit the Italian nation to make this step in advance—in that case there can be little doubt why the time has come now and not before. The successes of Cialdini have rendered the scheme, which was to be served by the occupation of the district between Rome and the Neapolitan frontier, hopeless; and the circular of Ricasoli has, at the same time, elicited an expression of public opinion throughout Europe, which the Emperor cannot afford to disregard. Rome, however, it is understood, is still to be held indefinitely, or till such time as Italy can convince her suzerain Emperor that her intentions with regard to the Pope are such as his eldest son can approve of. It does not seem improbable that the French Emperor will continue to hold Rome for the purpose and with the view above stated, until he is morally compelled to abandon it. But, as for any arrangements respecting the future position and destinies of the Pope, we do not see how it is possible that any can be made at all calculated to set the filial anxiety of his eldest son respecting him at rest. For the fact is, shocking as it must sound to imperial and devoutly filial ears, that the destinies of the Holy Father must depend on the will of the Italian House of Commons. And we do not feel sure that the status awarded to the Holy Father would be quite all that a devout eldest son could wish. There is one thing, however, that Italy must above all things guard against, and at all cost refuse; and, from information that has reached us, we have reason to think that the Italian Government is prepared to do so. In no case, and for no bribe, must anything in the nature of treaty obligations, entered into with any other power or powers, be permitted to interfere with or shackle the future dealings of Italy with future Popes. This being secured, the rest of the Roman question, when once the intruders can be got out of the country, may very safely be left to time and the hour, and a majority of an Italian House of Commons.

SCHEDULE D; AND ITS INJUSTICE.

CHANCELLORS of the Exchequer, whose main object is to extract the largest possible sums out of the pockets of the taxpayers, and scientific admirers of abstract principles, who look upon

society as a mere machine, bound to be obedient to the touch and the regulation of the State engineer, as the locomotive on land or the ship upon the sea, are always ready to do battle on behalf of Schedule D of the Income and Property Tax, and to maintain, with desperate pertinacity, the correctness of the principle, that precarious and fixed incomes ought to be taxed at the same ratio. A favorable specimen of this class of reasoners unfolded his views last week in the epistolary column of *THE LONDON REVIEW*, under the convenient signature of a "Constant Reader." Leaving out of our consideration for the present the by no means unimportant fact that the world is not governed by pure and mathematical reason, and that the true statesman takes account of the feelings, the prejudices, and, we may add, the instinctive sense of right and wrong that exists in millions of minds which can give no reason for the belief or the sentiment that is in them, we take advantage of the manner in which our correspondent has put the case, to show the fallacy that underlies his whole argument, and to prove that the mathematicians and *doctrinaires* of finance commit a mistake, as well as an injustice, in refusing to allow of any difference—for the taxable purposes of each successive year—between fixed and precarious incomes.

We take the case as put by our correspondent:—"Two men," he says, "enjoy an income of £1,000 a-year each. One derives his money from the rent of an estate; the other from the profits of a shop, or a living, or a medical practice, or the bar. 'Manifestly, undeniably,' cries the latter, 'it is unjust to tax me with the same income-tax as the other man. My income ceases with my life, or depends on a fluctuating trade, or my health, or my popularity. I may be well off to-day, but I may be a beggar to-morrow, through no fault of my own. I must provide against the evil day. I must save for ill-health, old age, and my children, and these are burthens from which my neighbour is exempt.' The usual reply given to this demand is, that if the income is temporary, so will be the tax. One income will only pay so long as it lasts, the other must pay for ever. *This argument is unanswerable.*"

The principle thus laid down by our correspondent is acted upon by the Government with an obstinacy which, in times of trouble and distress, might breed danger to the Commonwealth; but which, in our happier days, does no more than excite the dissatisfaction of all the intelligent and hardworking people of the middle-class who live by their labour and their skill. Unanswerable as he deems the argument to be, he admits that it does not silence the traders. He thinks it is "too mathematical and too abstruse for the world at large," though the world at large is quite competent to understand the mathematics of the pocket, and sees nothing at all abstruse in arithmetic. A few general propositions will show, we think, the fallacy of the whole argument, and justify the instinctive opposition of the professional and trading classes who refuse to be convinced by apparently "unanswerable" arguments that would be answerable enough if properly anatomised and probed to their foundations.

In the first place we think it must be admitted that the man who lives upon the interest of his capital—as a fundholder, or the proprietor of realized property—is the owner of a certain amount of the savings of past ages. We think, moreover, that it must be admitted that it is a fortunate thing for the present age, and all the people who live in it, that the people of the past ages were so provident as to save, and that they did not do us the injustice of leaving nothing behind them but a wilderness.

Every man who saves is more or less of a capitalist. If a man or his forefathers have saved an amount of money, with which he can buy land or houses, or which he can lend upon the security of the Government, in sufficient sums to produce him annually a handsome income by way of interest or usufruct, he is not only a public benefactor to a certain extent, but he owes a particularly strong allegiance to the State, which, by its wise laws and successful administration, preserves the value of the savings, or the capital, by means of which he has become one of the favoured few who can exist on the labour of others, without labouring for themselves. Government exists peculiarly for this man, for it guarantees to him and to his successors for ever, or as long as Government itself shall exist, the peaceable enjoyment of the savings of bygone generations, and of the interest thereupon.

For that reason, whenever an Income and Property tax is deemed expedient to supply the ordinary wants, or necessary to meet the more serious exigencies or perils of the State, this favoured individual is fairly called upon to pay a certain per centage, not upon the amount of his capital, but upon the annual interest which he derives from it. His income is fixed and permanent, and he does not lie under the imperative necessity of adding any portion of it to his pre-existing capital. He is justified in spending the whole of it, or in giving a portion of it away, year by year, to those who may have claims upon his natural affection, or even upon his friendship, and he cannot reasonably be accused of bad citizenship, or of injustice to himself or to society, if at the end of the year his receipts and expenditure balance each other and he have not laid by a farthing. It is the

obvious interest of a Government to encourage the growth and accumulation of capital, and of the class of educated, peaceable, patriotic, and conservative citizens who live upon the interest of it, bound to the State as they are by the closest of all ties, and having every possible motive for upholding the institutions under which they are enabled to live in comfort and with less fear for the morrow than any other class of the community. And as the Income and Property tax is a new thing in times of peace in our country, though it threatens to be permanent, it follows that this capital, the savings of past ages, did not pay a tax to the State in the days when it was undergoing the process of capitalization, and was year by year accumulated from the savings of thrifty or successful men. In one sentence, the capitalists in existence when the Income and Property tax was imposed had not paid a tax upon the savings by which they had made themselves capitalists.

We now take the case of the professional man, whose duty it is to himself, to his family, and to the State, to begin, like these men, to be a capitalist as soon as he can. If he gain £1,000 per annum by any industry or skill dependent on his health, his sanity, his life, or the fluctuations of trade, fashion, or popularity, he is not a good citizen, in the highest sense of the term, if he do not save some portion of his annual income to be converted into capital, on the proceeds of which he may subsist if evil days overtake him, or if sickness should prostrate his mental or bodily powers. The hardship of the case—though such men as our "Constant Reader," Mr. Gladstone, and the great bulk of existing capitalists refuse to see it—is, that if he begins to perform this act of good citizenship, the Government not only taxes him on the actual income which he is compelled to expend, and of which he does not complain, but on the capital which, as a good subject, he sets aside. And as the State acted no such part towards the great and small capitalists whom it found in existence when the tax was first imposed, the man of precarious income feels that he is unjustly treated as compared with them, and clamours for relief.

The Government sees difficulties in the way of a mathematical adjustment; and because it has not the inclination—being under the influence of financial *doctrinaires* in and out of Parliament—to grapple with these difficulties, and discover if they be really insurmountable, it strives to put an end to all agitation of the subject by declaring that relief is *impossible*. Every one knows how the trading and professional classes, as a body, have met this insulting persistence in a course which they feel to be unjust. The Government takes their money in a mode which they consider unfair and oppressive; and as it refuses redress, they take the law into their own hands as far as they can. They systematically understate their incomes, and only pay upon the full amount in those exceptional cases where concealment is hopeless. In other words, they meet injustice by dishonesty; and think it no shame to evade the payment which the State demands and the Legislature has authorized.

This is not a wholesome state of feeling to exist between a powerful Government and the most intelligent part of its people. If mathematics forbid a remedy, something nobler than mathematics commands that the Government and the trading and professional classes should be brought into harmony, under the penalty of worse evils that are certain to follow. Injustice may be endured with comparative patience in the fair weather which we now enjoy, but should there come a storm, as there may, the mathematicians are but too likely to discover, to their cost, that their method of Government was unnatural, and therefore unjust and perilous.

It should not be forgotten by those who would really understand the subject, that the whole force and paraphernalia of Government—Queen, Lords and Commons, the Army, the Navy, the Law, and the Church—exist for the protection of savings, or realized capital. The Government which guarantees that A shall receive the interest on his capital, and that his capital, if he pleases, shall be as permanent as the State itself, does not, however, guarantee to B, whose capital is his brain, his health, and his life, all working together to produce income or interest, the permanence of either of these. It cannot do so, and therefore B does not receive from the Government the same amount of support and protection that A does, and owes it, or ought to owe it, less in proportion. This consideration alone is sufficient to justify the claim on the part of precarious incomes, to a lower ratio of taxation than that on income which the State makes permanent.

When B, by years of thrift, becomes a capitalist, he will only be too happy to say as A does, upon his whole income. In the meantime the State, for its own sake, should encourage him to save, and not discourage him by unwise and unjust taxation, from which all previous hoarders up and creators of capital have been exempt.

The "Socialism" which "A Constant Reader" fancies he sees in any new arrangement of the incidence of the tax, would certainly be repudiated by the advocates of such an arrangement as strenuously as by the "Constant Reader" himself; and we cannot see how he deduces it either mat hematitically or logically from his premises.

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"MANNERS."

THERE is an old saying, that "Manners make the man." If this be true, there must now-a-days be a great number of men compounded of very scant materials. The majority have no manners at all; that is, in their intercourse with others they seem entirely to sink all regard for people's feelings, and simply to consider what is most flattering to their own vanity and least irksome to their own laziness. Complimentary phrases and deferential gestures may be objectionable if exaggerated. Doubtless, in nine cases out of ten, they have no solid foundation in the heart of the speaker; but their use is proof of a wide-spread feeling that it is both unpleasant and unwise to disclose the naked selfishness of human nature. Bluntness is a favourite quality with Englishmen in general. In novels and plays the blunt man, who curses and swears a good deal, will always, when necessary, fork out his guinea for the deserving, and shed an unwilling tear at the sight of misery and want. The polite man, on the contrary, is generally either a fool or a villain. We question whether this be quite true to nature. Without reference to the effect of politeness on the person addressed, it must surely act as a drag upon the selfish tendencies of the person who uses it. If a man is in the habit of being amiable and considerate in his behaviour, he will have to do himself some little violence in performing an action that is unamiable and inconsiderate. We cannot even in trifles follow a system founded on the recognition of a particular principle, without finding it difficult to ignore that principle in its application to serious things. We are so far logical. On the other hand, a vice that one is always pretending to is likely ere long to be confirmed in reality. We assume a want of feeling out of hatred for an affectation of feeling. The assumption in time becomes a habit; and the habit of behaviour becomes a habit of disposition, and our last state is worse than our first.

The manners, or rather the no-manners of the period may, without attempting an impossible exactitude, be divided into two great classes: those of the man who is at his ease, and those of the man who is not at his ease. The former is often rude; the latter is always awkward. The outward sign of easy manners is the possession of two side-pockets in the trowsers and the constant insertion of the hands in them. The man of uneasy manners may or may not have the pockets in question. He may even, if he have them, occasionally use them as receptacles for his hands; but there will be a jerky twitching about the fore-arm, and a slight pump-handle motion of the shoulders, which even to the casual observer will at once proclaim his class. Now, we are not going to deny that a comfortable resting-place for the distressing members in question is, *per se*, a thing of great value. Trowsers-pockets are the necessary condition of the fashionable stand-at-ease. But ought the height of social excellence to consist in the "abandon" with which a man avails himself of this social easement? Personal grace is a thing quite out of date. It went out with the minuets, bag-wigs, and powder. Still it is carrying out the principle of ungracefulness to its fullest extent when one's Pylades or one's Adonis greets one in an attitude suggestive of nothing so much as of a search for lurking halfpence. The two classes of manners are practically only two successive stages of the development of the social man. The uneasy or awkward manner is of course the earlier stage; the easy or rude manner the later. The effort to appear at ease without the ability to carry out the attempt, produces awkwardness; but by practice, a state of perfect indifference to other people's opinions and feelings is at length achieved, and real ease is the desirable result. How it comes to pass that this ease also involves rudeness is plain enough, if one considers the English character in its social aspects. There is no creature in the world so afraid of ridicule as the silent, impassive Englishman. Now, his natural phlegm makes him look upon all outward evidences of feeling as ridiculous. Possibly, ancient prejudices against the alleged grimacing of our good allies and rivals have something to do with this. At any rate, the idea exists. Unfortunately, he includes in his dislike all gestures, however sober, and all inflections of the voice, however much toned down; consequently, instead of taking advantage of his acquired ease for the purpose of softening the roughness of his address, he only congratulates himself that its acquirement enables him to face company without being put out. But something more than mere uncouthness is required to justify the charge of rudeness.

The deficient element will be supplied by another equally distinctive feature of the English mind,—the idea that to make advances to any one is to lessen one's own importance. Nowhere is this characteristic so visible as in railway travel. To traveller A., gathered in the farther corner of the carriage, enter traveller B. Both A. and B. are respectable looking men, holding possibly much the same positions in the world, and therefore not very likely to want anything of each other, or to express their want in the short space of time that they will pass together. Do they exchange greetings? Not a bit of it. Their acknowledgment of each other's presence is limited to defiant snorts, frowning glances, shot over the broad sheet of the *Times*, and a still tighter tucking of their travelling rugs round their legs, as if the very air were foul, and the infection were likely to insinuate itself into their constitutions up the bottoms of their trowsers. Without, however, insisting upon a case so extreme as this, we may say generally, that it will be very hard to decide from a man's manner, whether he is merely actuated by the fear of being supposed to make advances, or by a wish to show a positive dislike to the person in whose company he may be. A manner, which admits of this doubt, can scarcely be other than rude.

A worse part of the business is, that it is not upon men alone that we

practise our peculiar theory of behaviour. Ladies also get the benefit of it. What is worst of all is, that the ladies seem to like it. A quasi-Belgravian mother or two does indeed occasionally object in print to a freedom, which she supposes to have been learnt in the society of "horsebreakers." But the daughters and the young married women of England have quite different ideas on the subject. Does not our everyday experience tell us that almost any man, with some slight advantages of position or achievement, has only to give himself sufficient airs to be accepted by them at his own estimate?

Paris must lounge and yawn in his arm-chair, while poor Oenone stands piteously by and begs him to come and croquet her. When Paris, on leaving the dining-room, finds some fair pianist thumping away at a valse, and her fair companions full of anxiety to avail themselves of her efforts, he must betake himself to a corner with some male friend, and there devote himself to digesting his dinner, and looking at his boots, until he fancies that he has reduced his future partner to the proper state of desperation. "Women and walnut-trees, the more you beat 'em the better they be," is the precept that it is the mission of Paris to illustrate by his conduct. Effrontery, either in bullying or in petting, is the last new key to the female heart. However much literary ladies may declaim about the rights of woman, the younger ones at any rate like to be treated as inferior creatures. The Guy Livingstone type of hero, very ready with his hands, all but coarse in his language, and quite unscrupulous in his actions, is, *testibus* Booth and Mudie, the only one they really reverence. How different such an one is from the gentleman of old-fashioned notions we forbear to say.

Either from an excusable desire to organise some opposition to the swagger of the men, or in a less laudable spirit of imitation, the ladies themselves have adopted the so-called fast manners. Surely this dreadful exhibition should be looked upon by men as a punishment for their selfishness, and a warning to adopt a more gentle behaviour. We may deplore the bad taste that induces men to adopt the no-manner-at-all style, and enables women to admire it. But it is a far more serious matter, if this admiration leads the latter to afford, in their own persons, a caricature of all that a right feeling should consider repulsive, even in the former.

The one great charm of our British women has always been their gentleness and their delicacy. We have hailed the epithets, "froides" and "begeules," applied to them by vicious Frenchmen, as implying a distorted recognition of the direction in which their real attraction lay. They are fast losing the right to be thus stigmatized, without acquiring any new charm to make up for the loss. The very interest that they may excite in their admirers is not of the kind that should flatter a nice-minded woman. The stamp of man who does like a "stunning" girl is incapable of appreciating her really feminine qualities. Even he, were he in the habit of analysing his own feelings, would find that his liking was made up quite as much of an amused astonishment at her eccentricities as of devotion to herself. The more a woman assimilates herself to a man's male companions, the feebler must her legitimate power of attraction become. A certain difference is the *sine qua non* for real admiration. And surely any true woman would consider the being liked as a jolly fellow but a poor substitute for being loved as a wife. It would do fast ladies a great deal of good if they could have repeated to them the opinions on their manliness passed in the bachelors' wings of country houses, or the smoking-rooms of clubs. It is probable that wounded vanity would be a more efficient corrective than any arguments of ours.

Rudeness, then, on the part of the men, and *manliness* on that of the women, we conceive to be the marked characteristics of the manners of the period. The remedy is in the hands of the ladies. If they would only be good enough to set their faces against such extreme ease in their husbands, brothers, and admirers, and themselves refrain from all attempts at captivation by storm instead of by their own feminine graces, all would soon be well.

THE NEW TEST FOR HOLY ORDERS.

SINCE the notice given by the Bishop of Rochester of his intention to make the voice, as well as the learning and piety of candidates for holy orders, a part of their trial, claims have been put forth by the friends of several other prelates to their share of the praise which has been very generally awarded to Bishop Wigram. We are told that the importance of such a rule was laid down in the same diocese above a century and a half back; that Bishop Burgess laid down a positive rule to this effect thirty-six years ago; that the Bishop of London has adopted the practice of making all candidates for ordination preach before him, with a similar object. In short, that there is no novelty in the course intended to be pursued in the diocese of Rochester. If this be the case we hardly know whether to be glad or sorry. We are certainly glad that so desirable a principle as that laid down by Bishop Wigram should be generally recognized. On the other hand, we are sorry, and in some degree dismayed, to be told that its recognition is no novelty, because it is quite certain that, if it has been admitted and largely acted upon for some time, its adoption has produced singularly little fruit.

We should have expected the results to be very different. In secular matters a similar rule prevails, and is not unsuccessful in procuring workmen at least not devoid of those natural qualities which are indispensable to their efficiency. But it is a matter of universal notoriety that men are admitted in

every diocese to the office of ministration in the Church who are wholly unable to perform the duties which have been committed to them to discharge. It is notorious that the halt and the blind, and the deaf and dumb have been accepted as good enough for the ministry and functions of religion. This is not the place for discussing those inner and strictly spiritual qualifications which are essential to one who claims to be admitted into the sacred office of a Christian teacher. But we may be excused for expressing our utter amazement that men should be admitted into holy orders who are deficient in that very power without which they cannot convey their stores of learning and lessons of piety to those who assemble in order to hear what will instruct, or comfort, or convince. There are various kinds of vocal invalids in the pulpit.

There is the almost inaudible whisperer. He reads his manuscript held close to his lips, *sotto voce*, as if his only hearer were some one standing a few feet off, into whose ear alone he meant to pour such information as he has collected. Such a man very soon enjoys the luxury of preaching to empty pews. Like the primitive speakers in "unknown tongues," he speaks eventually to himself alone. He performs hebdomadal pantomime, but is denied the pleasure of seeing anybody looking at the spectacle.

There is the cold, unconcerned, easy, off-hand reader type. He reads his sermon as he reads his newspaper—chattering and talking over the most sacred themes with an apathy perfectly freezing. He does duty, by which he understands getting through twenty minutes' talk of commonplaces, insensible to the object and careless of the effect of what he says. He chops theology as a roadmaker breaks stones, and the sooner it is over and the easier he feels the task, the more successfully he thinks he has done the duty of the day.

There is, next, the stiltly preacher. In private he speaks naturally and well, but the moment he mounts his pulpit he assumes a declamatory tone of voice singularly unnatural and ineffective. He has lost all mastery over his voice. His voice governs him, not he his voice. Interrogations, expressions of surprise, delight, sorrow, joy, are all called out in the same pitch in which a sergeant calls over the regimental roll. Earnest hearers may pick out bits of instruction, but the multitude stare and marvel at the transformation of which the speaker becomes the victim when he leaves his study or his vestry and ascends the pulpit.

There is, next, the monotonous preacher. He has, perhaps, a good voice, and is in all likelihood a good man. He begins his sermon as if he had first sounded a pitch-pipe on A minor, and on this note he pronounces every word from the beginning of his sermon to the end. He intones his discourses with marvellous adherence to his key-note. The result is a congregation fast asleep, accompanying his tenor with that peculiar heavy bass which we call snoring. Of all soporific influences on a congregation, this is the most powerful. This preacher is a very *Morpheus*. He lowers the market price of opium, and turns the sanctuary into a dormitory; and if he does no other good, he gives his people a nap on Sundays, which serves to whet their appetites for their Sunday's dinner.

The last type of preacher we shall name is the roarer. This preacher howls his sermon, and flings his arms about like windmill sails. Deaf people think him a delightful preacher, but others of his parishioners put cotton in their ears to save the drum from being split. The Wesleyan Methodists are masters in this line. The clergyman's sore throat is the frequent result of it. It is not earnestness, though it looks like it. It produces none of the effects of eloquence, while it serves to drive away every hearer who has a musical ear in his head, or a sensitive nerve in his body.

There is, lastly, the truly effective speaker. He yields his voice as he touches the strings of a musical instrument. Inflection, cadence, variety, keep up the attention of his audience, and waft without obstruction sublime truths into receptive hearts. Effective speaking, as far as it depends on the voice, is simply intensified ordinary conversation, retaining all the natural varieties of key and intonation. Talma, the great French actor, whose simplicity of acting was as striking as its effect was powerful, practised his voice in private till he made a whisper audible to a couple of thousand people. His account of his first awakening to the secret of effective vocal utterance is thus given by himself:—

"Chance threw me into a parlour with the leaders of the Gironde party. There were written there great and mighty interests. Discussion ensued; they touched the most thrilling questions of the crisis. It is thus, thought I, that men should speak. The country, whether it be named France or Rome, employs the same accents, the same language; if then they do not declaim here, neither did they declaim in the olden time. An apparent calmness in these men agitates the soul—eloquence that can have force without throwing the body into disorderly movements. I even perceived that discourse uttered without effort or outcry renders the gesture more energetic, and gives more expression to the countenance. All these deputies appeared far more eloquent than at the tribune, where, finding themselves a spectacle, they thought it necessary to utter their harangues in the manner of actors, that is to say of declaimers fraught with turgidity. From that moment I caught new light, and saw my art regenerated."

The secret of effective vocal speech is in the soul. Any fear of failure, any craving after applause, any sense of critical inquisition on the part of the audience, is fatal to effect. The flexibility and variety of shade and tone in the conversation of two men in the street, absorbed and animated in a common object, are marvellous. All this may be transferred to the pulpit. The speaker must let the accents of the soul ring in his discourse. Declaiming is the ruin of pulpit eloquence. A simple, earnest, and intensified conversation is its highest eloquence.

A FAMILY PICTURE.

SELF-GLORIFICATION is always dangerous; it is well, perhaps, for individuals and nations to have a comfortable internal assurance that they are the "wisest, virtuosest, discreetest, best," of the human race; that they are the picked and chosen grain, winnowed from the chaff and refuse that make up all other peoples and persons. There is not much harm, on the whole, in this kind of complacency, as long as it is silent; but there is peril in proclaiming this assurance of superiority too often or too loudly. In the first place, it is always contradicted by those we throw into shade by the contrast; secondly, it is liable to be both contradicted and rebuked by events. The Americans, when their republic was one and indivisible, were continually boasting their superiority to the universe in everything; the rebuke has come in a grand crash of the whole system. The *Great Eastern* was intended to dwarf all other ships into comparative cock-boats; and she has been rebuked by a catalogue of disasters, terminating in the ignominy of being offered assistance in a storm by a little brig, that she could have hoisted on to her deck. "Can I do anything for you?" asks the pigmy bark, riding the waves like a cork, while the bulky giant rolls, helpless as a log, in the trough of the sea. It is a type of what is perpetually happening. In fact, all that is excessive in amount and degree ought to excite something like dread or terror, lest it should be brought down and put to shame by that envious fate, of which the ancients made an avenging power.

This Nemesis seems to have been close at hand when Mr. Newdegate was praising England as above all other nations in morality and prosperity, on the ground of its superior reverence for the "principle of the family;" the Sparkenhoe farmers must have been astonished, and rather mystified, at being told that they and their fathers, by marrying and christening, in the most unreflecting manner, for many generations, had been acting on a "great principle" without knowing it. M. Jourdain's surprise at finding he had been talking prose all his life with similar unconsciousness, is nothing to it. That society is based on "the family" is a mere truism; but it was followed by what is more offensive than a solemnly pronounced platitude. England, said Mr. Newdegate, owes her wealth, her power, her morality, to the greater influence of the "family" principle among us. He painted England as a nation made up of model households; other countries being, we presume, peopled by a kind of gregarious human animals.

Our observation disposes us to deny his proposition. The family life of Germany is as perfectly developed as that of England; that of Italy has long been remarkable for its tenacity of affection; three generations of an Italian family frequently live under the same roof in harmony. The out-of-door life of the French, Germans, and Italians, keeps the family together in the lower classes much more than the recreations of the same grade in England; and in no country of the world have the anti-domestic institutions—clubs—taken such root. The aristocracies of Germany and Italy include families as old as the most ancient of our peerage; indeed, among them the "family principle" has been carried to excess, and has resulted in the creation of a real caste.

The assertion of our superiority to other nations, in this point, was just that kind of self-glorification that deserved a "rebuke" from the events of life; and it has received it. The newspapers that contained the Sparkenhoe oration, unfortunately for our claim to superior "domestic" feeling, contained also the testimony of those grim witnesses—the police reports. The memory of the eye can recall, within forty-eight hours of the "family" flourish, such headings as these:—"Savage Assault on a Wife," "Attempted Parricide," "Attempt of a Wife to Murder her Husband." But the keenest rebuke came in the facts of the extraordinary case investigated at Rugby. That presented a family picture worth framing by a moralist, as a frightful example of mere greed for money, quenching the most sacred of "family" affections. The story would contribute a chapter to a chronicle of the "Calamities of Wealth." For an infant born in a family connected with a name almost inseparably associated with the idea of immense riches, would it not seem that the Destinies had spun his thread of life,—

"Out of their softest and their whitest wool"?

For him might, with all certainty, have been predicted kind nursing and tender protection during an indulged childhood, till the "curled darling" grew, through the luxuries of a wealthy home, to the maturity that should send him into a world, in which all paths would be smoothed before him. Not so; the blessing that fortune held suspended over his cradle was turned to a curse. That little unconscious atom of humanity suppressed, another would take his place in law; and the infant was therefore thrown into the ocean of the vagabondage of London. That it should have survived and been rescued, is little less than a miracle. At present all the links in the chain of crime seem distinctly traced. The falsified provincial registry; the mendicant woman singing by night in Windmill-street; the furtive shilling slipped into her hand; the conference in a "quiet place;" the transfer of the child to London, and the cool delivery of it to a life of indescribable wretchedness, are all recorded.

And while its little existence was one long struggle with hunger, filth, and vermin, in the horrible dens of St. Giles's, among its kindred were those who were pouring out their gold by thousands for every benevolent purpose, quite unconscious that one of their own blood was withering away, mingled with thousands of the outcasts of society, thrown into the horrible gulf to live or die—if the first, it must have been hoped—without discovery; if the last, without grief! Happily, the case is too exceptional to fix a stigma on any class; but it is certainly a rebuke to the boasts of our superior domestic and family feeling.

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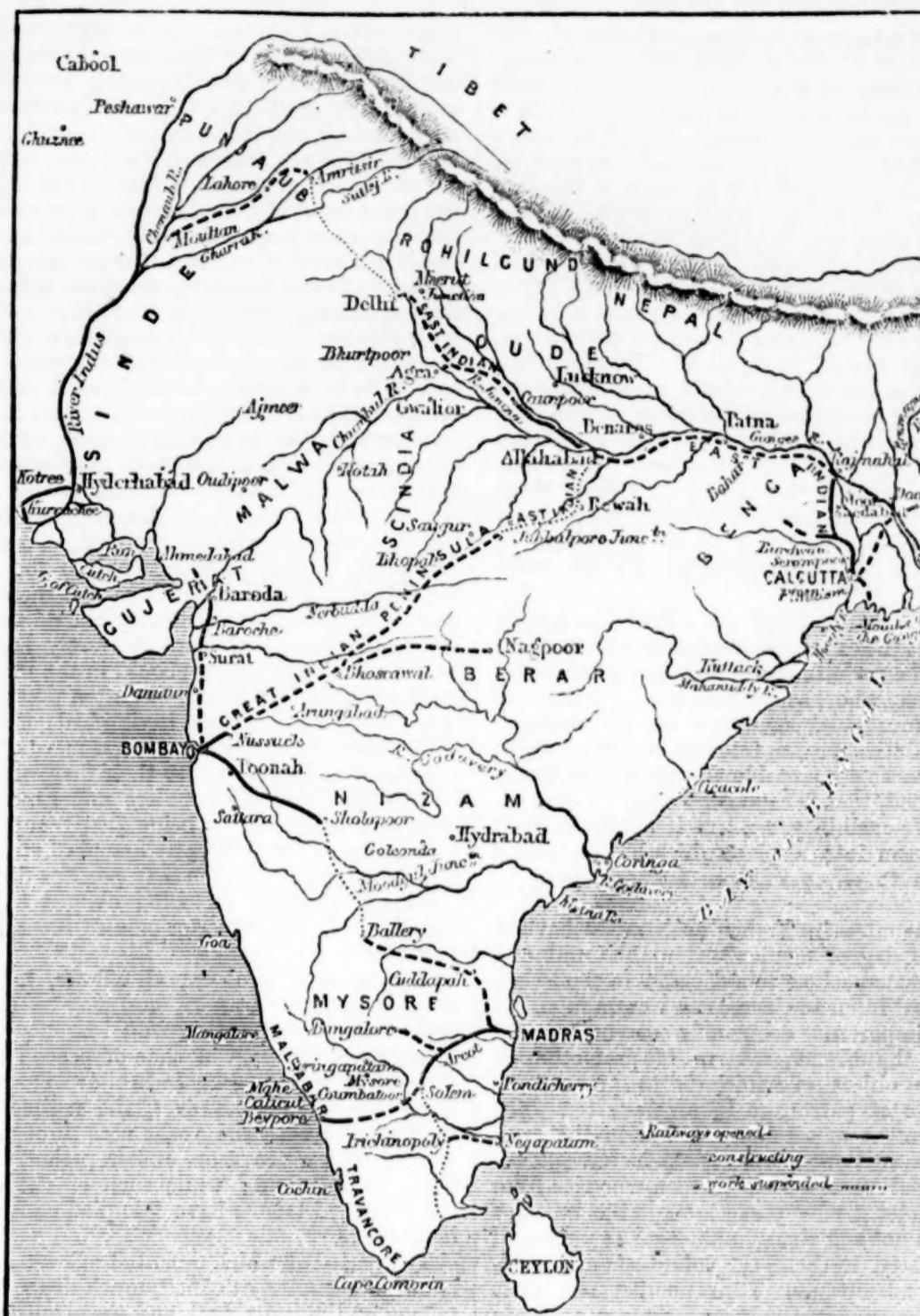
PROGRESS IN INDIA.
RAILROADS.

The public takes at all times a deep interest in the affairs of the great eastern empire which, through the Parliament, it now effectually governs. At the present moment this interest is deepened by the disturbances in America, which compel us to look elsewhere for a supply of cotton, and we turn to India as of all places the most favourable for our purposes. The public will therefore learn from our columns with pleasure, if it do not already know, that, since January 1st in the present year, 211 miles of additional railroad have been opened in India. In 1860, 208 miles of new road were added to the 634 miles open on January 1st of that year. According to the latest information, we have then a total of 1,063 miles of railway in use for the purposes of traffic. The amount is small, compared to the extent of railways in England, or the larger extent in the United States; but it exceeds the entire extent of lines existing in the vast empire of Russia. As yet, that immense region has, we believe, no railways of any consequence, except that from St. Petersburg to Moscow. It is true that some lines in India have been entirely suspended, as the Oude; and parts of others, for instance of that between Delhi and Lahore, have been postponed from want of funds. Still it is expected that 1,353½ miles, including the 211 miles already opened since January, will be completed in the present year, out of 2,932½ miles now in course of execution. In 1862 the remainder will probably be finished. To feed them the Government is directing the construction and improvement of common roads, of which 43, of an aggregate length of 1,083 miles, are already designed, in Madras, to communicate with the rail that crosses the peninsula.

The lines seem wisely planned. The longest, the "East Indian," runs north-westerly through the whole breadth of our dominions from Calcutta, connecting it with Lahore, and uniting both with the Indus. The "Great Indian" runs north-easterly from Bombay into the centre of India, and connects that shipping port with the other line at Jubbelpore, to which a branch from the East Indian runs south-westerly. Running from Bombay north-westerly to Ahmedabad is the "Bombay and Baroda," which brings a large cotton district into close connection with English shipping. From Bombay, too, the "Indian Peninsula" runs south-easterly, and joining the "Madras" at Moodgul, which runs thither from Madras, is intended to connect these two provincial capitals. Again, from Madras a line runs west-southerly across the Peninsula, and terminates at Beypore on the Malabar coast. From this last line, also, the "Great Southern of India" starts, and runs to the coast opposite to Ceylon. Finally, the "Scinde" connects the port of Kurrachee with Hyderabad and the Indus. In time India will be better supplied with railroads than ever it has been with common roads, and they will be memorials to posterity of the civilization introduced into the country under the beneficent sway of England.

Up to the end of April £34,396,445 had been raised by the Indian railway companies, and £34,042,128 had been expended, out of a sum of nearly £56,000,000 originally required to complete the works already planned. The bulk of this capital will be raised in England. Up to the present time only £669,952 has been raised in India. Of the estimated £56,000,000 Government has guaranteed the payment of interest on £45,949,300, and probably by no other or better means could the work have been done. This plan unites, to a great degree, the watchfulness of private interest with the authority of the State. It may not be so effective as private interest, with no other means of profit than the yield of the enterprise, but in India private enterprise would not venture on such works without the guarantee of the State. Up to the end of 1860, Government had paid £5,299,709 as interest on this capital. The charge for the present year will probably be about £1,800,000; to set off against which the Government has the earnings of the railways as fast as they are completed. Last year they amounted to £318,310; this year they will be upwards of £400,000. At present the Government is at a large annual expense; it pays interest on unprofitable capital, and is bound to hurry all the works to a conclusion, that the roads may begin to pay.

In a non-pecuniary sense, however, the Government reaps great advantages from the railways. By facilitating communication for troops, artillery, &c., a much smaller military force than formerly, and a force continually diminishing as facility of communication increases, will suffice for the maintenance of its power and the protection of every portion of its subjects. In working the lines, 18,789 persons were employed last October, and of these, 17,502 were natives. These latter, also, are largely employed in constructing the



Map of India, showing the Lines of Railway.

roads. On the Bhore Ghāt incline, extending over fifteen miles of the Great Indian Peninsula, 30,000 men are employed, collected from all parts of the country. They comprise thirty-two different classes of artisans, included in which are 10,822 drillers and 2,659 masons. Lord Canning has borne testimony to the right spirit that pervades the dealings of railway officials with the native population. The consequence is, "that labourers come in freely to seek work even from the wild Santhal hills. No impediment being offered to their return when they please, they work cheerfully and willingly." The railway works, then, promote civilisation amongst the wild tribes, and attach them to the Government. They hold an army in our pay, though not of Sepoys, and one which has no disposition to mutiny. Wages, too, already improved in India, are becoming higher still; and the competition now going on abroad for Indian coolies may make it necessary for our Government rather to check than to encourage continued expatriations. In such circumstances, indicating future peace and prosperity, Government and people alike find advantage.

"Great physical and engineering obstacles are," we are told, "in a fair way of being surmounted. Rivers of great width and depth are being spanned by bridges which will stand as monuments of the scientific skill of the present age; mountains will be crossed by means of works of the same kind; swamps and jungles have been drained and cleared, and hills have been pierced." The Bhore Ghāt incline, already referred to, and the Thul Ghāt, on the same line, have called forth a great degree of engineering skill. In the former the road is carried "in one lift" up an elevation of 1,831 ft.; the average of the gradients is 1 in 48. The tunneling is

2,535 yards, in twelve or more short tunnels. All the works are in trap-rocks, of various degrees of hardness, requiring few bricks; but superincumbent on the rock lies a thick stratum of boulders, embedded in soft moorum, and, as the support is removed or shaken, they discharge the boulders, which thunder down and carry destruction to workmen and works. To guard against this peculiarity while working, and secure the safety of the line after it is made, has required great care and great skill.

The greatest peculiarity on the line is, however, a "reversing station," at which the engines are turned, the last of each train becomes the head, and, as it leaves the station, appears to be going back. The line is constructed somewhat in the zigzag fashion common in crossing most mountains, and already adopted in America for railways. In consequence, one portion of the zigzag is nearly parallel to another, though much above it. Both are terraced on the side of a mountain over a river, and are 1,400 feet above its level. The consulting engineer for this great work was Mr. Stephenson; the chief engineer is Mr. J. J. Berkeley, and it will do honour to both. Temples, tombs, gates, aqueducts, embankments—all the marvels that India has yet witnessed of grandeur and splendour—will be surpassed by this railway in the clouds. The incline is estimated to cost £597,222, or £41,188 a mile. It was to be completed by the contract on the 1st of February last; but in the report made to Sir C. Wood by the chief of the railway department on May 1st, it is mentioned that a delay in completing the works has occurred owing to the prevalence of disease. Responsible Europeans were struck down, and native workmen dispersed and fled. The generality of men are yet ignorant of the laws on which health depends in India, and till they are better and more universally understood, these great works may thus be often brought to a standstill, and their projectors may want the first and chief element of all success.

THE FRENCH ARMY.—No. V.

PROMOTION.

ALTHOUGH the French soldier's pay is but small for his first term of service, which is considered as a duty due to his country, his subsequent treatment, if he remains in the ranks, is liberal indeed, and his pecuniary rewards are far superior to those enjoyed by any other European soldier. No volunteer receives any bounty on entering the army, but at the commencement of his second seven years, the man who re-engages is entitled to from one hundred to one hundred and twenty pounds sterling, according to the exigencies of the service, one half of which he draws at once, the residue being invested at four per cent. until the period of his enlistment expires, when he receives the balance. And thus, if he be a prudent man, he finds himself at thirty-four years of age free, and with a sum of money in

his possession sufficient to enable him to commence some modest industry. All men who re-engage, even the sous-officers who retain their rank, *must* accept this bounty, which costs the nation nothing, as it is derived from the "smart money" paid by those conscripts who purchase their release. They are then at liberty (as those who possess means or expect promotion always do) either to return it to the military fund, or to bestow it on some charitable institution, when the fact of their having done so is promulgated in an order of the day. This arrangement has for object to spare the feelings, while rewarding the services of the man whose want of capacity precludes the hope of his advancement. After twenty-five years' service the soldier retires on a minimum pension of five hundred francs (£20), independent of two hundred and fifty francs (£10) a year for the cross, if he be decorated, or one hundred francs a year if he has obtained the military medal; to which may be added allowances for wounds, and the sum which he received on his second engagement. Besides those advantages, he has the chance, if he has merit and talents, of reaching the superior grades of his profession, and the certainty, with ordinary capabilities and good conduct, of winning his epaulettes, which secure him a position in society, and an income far beyond those generally enjoyed by persons in his original class of life, who have devoted themselves to village shop-keeping or labour. The system of promotion followed in the French army is perhaps the best that could be devised, not only to render justice to those subject to its control, but also to provide efficient officers for the public service.

Influence, of one kind or another, may, and no doubt sometimes does benefit one man, at the expense of another, but the examples are not numerous; and even in those cases, the individual, not the nation suffers; for, though one officer may be passed over the head of another, who has perhaps better claims and more merit, still the person so preferred must possess the necessary qualifications for the performance of his enlarged duties, or no interest can procure his advancement. The responsibility of those accountable for promotion in the subordinate grades is so distinctly defined, that it cannot be evaded; and the number of those who share in that responsibility, renders it almost morally impossible to foist an incompetent person into a place which he is unsuited to fill, and very difficult indeed even to effect what in Ireland would be designated "a snug job."

Although there are no landed magnates in France such as we have in England, who control in a more or less degree many votes in the Commons, or who carry a bundle of proxies in their pockets to a division in the Peers, and who can, by means of their political influence, coerce an unscrupulous or tottering Minister into conferring important commands or undeserved advancement on unfit persons, still the French system of promotion is hedged round with precautions, the object of which is to prevent, as far as possible, the improper exercise of patronage in any quarter. The colonel has the uncontrolled appointment of all sous-officers to the rank of adjutant (who is but a non-commissioned officer) inclusive. Two-thirds of the commissions are by regulation reserved for men who rise from the ranks, and one-third for the students who pass through the military schools. As these latter, however, are not sufficiently numerous as yet to fill the number of appointments appropriated to them, the volunteers and meritorious conscripts possess additional advantages. It is no disgrace, as it would be considered in our service, to engage in the French army as a private soldier; for the volunteer may, if he have commanding abilities, reach the rank of Marshal of France—the highest honour a subject can attain. The sons of the most aristocratic families often do so; and though military etiquette prevents them from frequenting the same *café* as their officers, still in private society they are on a footing of the most perfect equality; and the common soldier is often met in full uniform at the dinner-table of his colonel. That the advantages based upon the just disposal of promotion are considered sufficiently attractive by the youths who voluntarily embrace a military life, is proved by the number who engage themselves. In time of peace they average from ten to twelve, and in war from twenty-five to thirty thousand, annually. Candidates for the military colleges may present themselves for examination from seventeen to twenty; and they must have passed for their commissions after two years' study, or they are compelled, in accordance with an engagement taken before their reception, to enter the ranks as soldiers. Even those who go out as officers are obliged to complete their seven years' service before they are permitted to resign. As regards entrance to the military schools, the soldier has additional advantages accorded him, for, while serving in the ranks, he may complete his education, and he is entitled to admission up to the age of twenty-five. The examinations for admittance to St. Cyr and the Ecole Polytechnique, are held in the principal towns of the different departments, so that the aspirants are put neither to trouble nor expense. All persons untainted by a conviction for crime, no matter what their occupation or condition in life may be, have a right to present themselves. The celebrated General Drouot, Count D'Erlon, whose statue now stands prominent amongst those of the heroes of the first Empire which embellish the Tuilleries, presented himself before the examiners in the blouse of a peasant. He was laughed at by his competitors for his humble dress and simple manners; but when, after a most brilliant examination, he was placed first upon the list of those admitted, the youths, who before mocked at his personal appearance, carried him on their shoulders in triumph round the hall.

On admission, the successful candidate, if destitute of means to discharge the expenses of his education (which are about equal to those at Woolwich), has a right to demand a bourse, by means of which he is supported at the cost of the State. The number of those bourses is unlimited, and they are granted on the mere production of a certificate from the mayor of his district, specifying that the claimant's family are not in a position to pay for his support. Thus every facility is afforded the ambitious and able youth to make his way in the most honourable of careers, while no opportunity is lost of enlisting genius in the service of the country.

Up to the rank of captain inclusive, two vacancies in each regiment are filled by seniority, and the third by choice; and on the colonel rests the responsibility of those latter promotions, since he takes the initiative in presenting the officers he deems worthy of advancement, and without his consent it is impossible, no matter what interest may be employed, to secure the promotion of any subaltern under his command. Each year he makes a list of those officers in the different grades whom he considers most deserving and capable; he names four captains for the rank of "chef-de-bataillon," or major, seven

lieutenants for captains, and as many sous-lieutenants for lieutenants, together with any number of sous-officers he thinks fit for commissions. This list he submits to the inspecting general, who, after having personally examined the candidates, has the power of rejecting any of them whom he may consider unqualified, or of changing their respective numbers of merit, by placing No. 4 first, and No. 1 last, but he can neither add to nor travel out of the list presented to him by the colonel. The amended or sanctioned list is submitted by the inspecting general to the marshal commanding the district, accompanied by his own opinion, and by him again it is laid before the Minister of War; and it is in this stage only that interest can be made available, as the Minister may select any one, even the last upon the list, for the step, though even he is without power to promote any officer not upon it. As a check to control the colonel from acting in a hasty or prejudiced manner in regard to his recommendations, both he and the lieutenant-colonel are obliged to keep books, in which each makes a monthly entry respecting the conduct and capacity of every officer in the regiment: those books are exhibited to the inspecting general, and should he find that the colonel's written periodical remarks do not support the nominations on his list, or that he and the lieutenant-colonel are at variance as regards the merits of any particular officer, he demands explanations from both, and then forms his own opinion after a searching examination of the person interested. Should no vacancy have occurred in the regiment during the year, it does not follow as a matter of course that the colonel's next list should contain the same names only, or that they should be placed in the same order as in the list of the preceding year. It rarely happens that any name is removed, unless some other officer should in the interim have distinguished himself in some remarkable manner, but often that the relative positions of those upon it are altered, the colonel having had good and justifiable reasons for changing his opinions as to their respective merits.

Officers, on promotion to their first commissions, or to the grade of "chef-de-bataillon," are never, unless under most exceptional circumstances, left in their own regiments, it being justly supposed that they can perform their new duties more efficiently amongst strangers than amongst their ancient comrades, some of whom may perhaps dispute the justice of their advancement, and feel hurt at being obliged to obey men whom they had before commanded. All superior officers are selected by choice, without reference to seniority.

According to regulation all officers, to the rank of captain inclusive, are entitled to their "retreat," and may be compelled to accept it, after thirty years' service—when they would be fifty years of age if conscripts, and forty-seven if volunteers,—in time of peace; but, if sufficiently active to perform their duty, they are sometimes allowed to remain longer, from motives of public economy; should, however, the regiment take the field, the regulation is rigidly enforced. Those who pass through the schools have either voluntarily quitted the service at an earlier period, or have attained higher rank within the specified time; while such of the conscripts or volunteers as evince distinguished talents have "le pied dans l'étrier" (their foot in the stirrup) long before.

The period at which mounted officers are required to take their "retreat" is not so accurately defined, much depending upon the health, activity, and talents of the individual, and the requirements of the service; but at sixty-three all generals of brigade, and at sixty-five all generals of division, are placed upon the "reserved list," and thenceforward they are not entrusted with command on active service; although, in case of emergency, they may be employed within the limits of the French territory. By this means, while humble merit is not inadequately rewarded, opportunities are afforded to the younger officers to win their way to the top of their profession by the removal of the incapable or used up men who would otherwise obstruct their progress.

Under the system which we have thus endeavoured to describe, it is clear that every other consideration is sacrificed to that of creating a vast military power; to that, in fact, of making the whole French nation one vast army. With this object no man's inclinations, no man's natural disposition or talents, no man's rights as a citizen, are allowed to interfere. We need not say that we should be sorry to see such a system introduced into England, for it is impossible, it could not be endured for a moment. At the same time it cannot be denied that it is well calculated to attain the end which its designers had in view; and that many details of the organization of the French army, the encouragement which is afforded by it to merit of every kind, the securities which are provided against the operation of improper influences, many of the regulations for the comfort and respectability of the soldier, and also those which provide for the economical working of the whole machine, might be advantageously imitated in our own service. The present Commander-in-Chief has done much for the comfort and encouragement of the soldier, as well as for the improvement of the officer; but he is also aware that much yet remains to be done; and he evidently feels that there is no more honourable task, no more certain way to secure the respect and gratitude of the nation, than that of raising the character and increasing the efficiency of the army, to which Britain owes so much of her glory, and to which Europe at large has more than once owed its liberties and its safety.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE. PARIS.

A STORY is going the round of the few places where French people still meet together to talk: it is said that a chamberlain of the King of Prussia being asked the other day whether the Court was "going to Paris?" answered, "No, we are not yet going that length." In reality a compromise has been come to; the King proposed Strasburg, the Emperor suggested St. Cloud, or even Paris, and between the two extremes Compiègne was agreed upon. What the more far-sighted among politicians predict is, that King William will spend his twenty-four hours at the Imperial Hunting Palace: that he will listen to the arguments used by his host, to persuade him to cede the Rhenish provinces to France, embroil Prussia in a war with nearly all Germany, and leave himself without an ally in the world; and then that, politely signifying to Louis Napoleon his inability to adopt the Imperialist "idea," he will return whence he came, after which the interdict will probably be raised upon the patriotic piece "L'Invasion," and the frequenters of the Porte St.

Martin 1814-15 "glory," It was M. Moc were pre the who Mirès lo forthwith heaviest the Mar camels v stage, lo generals Emir die The on Vefyk I and said. Prob Christm see how at the P There will not a Hubn expect is. That "s do perfect is, I incl a very g he is too yet he win. I told been hel not to be play are of King it, for t princes! "L'Inva at the bi It is e of playe is at last Blucher master a before the bills are descend to imita five year whic will re perspect It is s about Sc larger n London. press, it dition in hide the sign, and to be fou aggeratio official F or four v instance went ove may like how far the a of all kin which al are the c which is As to moment occupation session o "cession annexed to the p policy, S sturdy S sides; le was the and of his num it, and long as holds " compara la-Grand The n intimate decided

Martin will be gladdened by the sight of those "hateful foreigners," who in 1814-15 helped France to get rid of the tyrant she so execrated, and whose "glory," to use Chateaubriand's phrase, "had cost her so dear."

It was precisely the same with "*Les massacres de Syrie*" last winter. M. Mocquard had "got them up;" camels were bought at Cairo, costumes were prepared, Abd-el-Kader's gold sabre was impatient in its sheath, and the whole work of the Turkey-hunt on a grand scale was complete, when the Mirs loan was suddenly brought to bear upon the Imperial decision, and forthwith the whole "spectacle" was countermanded, indemnities of the heaviest kind were promised to everybody, and before two months were past the *Massacres de Syrie* were discovered to be "the thing." M. Mocquard's camels were dragged from their stables; his sham Arabs were brought on the stage, looking like the most genuine Kabyles ever "smoked by French generals;" the gold sabre flashed before the well-packed pit; the make-believe Emir did all but turn Christian then and there; Turkey was trampled into the mire; and everything was for the best in this best of all possible worlds. The only person who was *not* to have been amused was so to a high degree. Vefyk Pasha, the then Turkish ambassador, saw the *Massacres* through, and said, "*Nous ne nous en portons pas plus mal!*"

Probably M. Pourtalès, the Minister of Prussia, may be called upon before Christmas to go and judge of the *mise en scène* of the campaign of 1814, and see how he likes the shape under which old Blucher will be presented to him at the Porte St. Martin.

There is a general opinion gradually forming here, that this next winter will not pass over without some "incident." People expect more or less of a Hubner speech on the 1st of January; and for the very reason that they expect it, I would almost venture to say that they will be disappointed. That "something" will happen ere long—that events are in the wind—that I do perfectly believe; but that their form will be aggressive at the very outset, is, I incline to imagine, a delusion of the popular mind. Louis Napoleon is a very great stage manager, and his "effects" are most curiously contrived; he is too "cunning a hand" to give his audience exactly what they anticipate, yet he has a trick or two in store for them, I fancy, and they will laugh who win.

I told you of the forthcoming piece upon the campaign of 1814, which had been held advisable by the Imperial dramatist. Well, it is for the moment not to be performed, because some of the real actors in the vast European play are playing their parts agreeably, and are to be spared! The consent of King William of Prussia to pass twenty-four hours at Compiegne makes it, for the present, superfluous to excite public opinion against German princes! and so the *Censure* has been ordered to object to the drama entitled "*L'Invasion*," nominally written by M. Séjour, and set on foot by M. Mocquard, at the bidding of the great *impresario* of all!

It is exactly Hamlet's mode of proceeding; a play is played before a public of players; and who is of the public, and who is of the player-tribe, it is at last difficult to say. Here was a "play" being got up, in which old Blucher was to enact a prominent part; but, suddenly, the son of Blucher's master accepts an engagement to come "starring" it at Compiegne, and before this "tremendous attraction" the lesser one is set aside, and the play-bills are altered! His Imperial Majesty, Napoleon III., will himself descend to play a "charade" with the Prussian King, and will only resort to imitation potentates and the phantasmagoria of what took place forty-five years ago, if the real sovereigns should not be found to "pay." It would really be a most comical comedy if it were not such a tragedy in perspective.

It is so very necessary that the truth—the *real* truth—should be known about South Italy on your side of the water, that it would be as well if a larger number of Italian newspapers of different opinions were read in London. For any one who conscientiously undertakes to read the Italian press, it becomes quickly evident that things are in a most lamentable condition in Sicily and Naples, and that the Government of Turin is obliged to hide the half of what happens there. Now this of itself is not a favourable sign, and it is a great pity that in the English press there is not some organ to be found in which *bona fide facts* are recounted truly, and without the exaggerations of party spirit on one side or on the other. Here in Paris the official Foreign Office despatches speak within the last three weeks of three or four victories gained by Chiavone and General Borger, and mention one instance in which a certain number of Piedmontese soldiers deserted and went over to the Reactionists. It is not in all this a question of what we may like or dislike, or of what we may hope for, or wish; the question is how far it is possible for North Italy to absorb the South, and how far the attempts of the North to do so are devouring the national forces of all kinds, and rendering impracticable that gathering up of *armed* strength which *alone* can enable Italy to aspire to independence of France. These are the questions we must ask ourselves, and the *truth* of the answers to which is of vital importance to us.

As to what is plotting with respect to Switzerland, that is also of great moment; but that hangs together with the continuation or not of the French occupation of Rome. If the cabinet of Turin will consent to pay for the possession of a capital, France will agree to evacuate Rome, and the principle of "cessions" once accepted, the market is open, and more people may be annexed than are minded to be so at present. If Baron Ricasoli should agree to the principle of barter, which was in reality the essence of the Cavour policy, Switzerland would have, indeed, need to tremble; for, in that case, the sturdy Swiss would have to struggle for their Helvetic liberties on both sides; lest on the one hand they should be French, on the other Italian. That was the meaning of the "grand demonstration" the other day at Lugano, and of the solemn planting of the Swiss flag by General Dufour and his numerous staff on the extreme frontier of the Tessinois. But I repeat it, and you may rely upon it, there is small danger for Switzerland as long as Turin can hold out; for so long as the Italian government withholds "compensation" from France, the Emperor will leave the Swiss comparatively unthreatened in spite of such small affrays as that of Villa-Grande.

The news from Biarritz of the Imperial health—news coming from the intimate *entourage*—is not of a very rose-coloured sort. His Majesty is decidedly *très fatigué*, and it is high treason to say so.

FLORENCE.—GIOVANNI BATTISTA NICCOLINI.

(FROM OUR OWN CORRESPONDENT.)

At three o'clock in the afternoon of Friday, the 20th of this month, died Gio. Batt. Niccolini, the greatest Italian poet of our day. He was born at the village called Bagni di San Giuliano, near Pisa, on the 31st of October, 1782, and had therefore almost completed his seventy-ninth year. His state of health for some years past has been such as to indicate that his life could not be much protracted, and for a still longer time such as to render any literary exertion impossible. Indeed it has been well known, that in his case the intellect accompanied the body *pari passu* in its decay.

On the 29th of last August the municipality of Florence, assembled under the presidency of the Gonfaloniere, passed the following resolution:—

"Considering that Gio. Batt. Niccolini is justly held in universal estimation as the first living poet of Italy;—that by the power of his genius he was the forerunner and promoter of the great idea of national unity and independence; that worthily rivalling Machiavelli and Alfieri in his writings, he has merited to share with them the honours of the tomb, as he has shared, while living, their glory; the magistracy of Florence has, by an unanimous vote, expressed the desire, that on the death of the illustrious poet, now dangerously ill, his mortal remains shall be placed in the temple of Santa Croce, the sanctuary of Italian glories; and with this intention has charged its Gonfaloniere to lay a formal demand to that effect before the King's Government."

And Santa Croce will accordingly receive another inmate of its Pantheon, most assuredly worthy of one of its most honourable niches.

Machiavelli and Alfieri lie there side by side; and their names, therefore, occurred to the worthy town councillors as meet associates for that of Niccolini. But the comparison is not a happy one. For the poet whom Italy has just lost was quite as far superior to Alfieri in his poetry as he was inferior to the extraordinary secretary to the republic in his prose writings.

Alfieri assuredly never produced anything to be compared to the "Arnaldo da Brescia," perhaps, in its way, the most powerful piece of historic dramatic writing ever given to the world. It may be conceded that Alfieri has more strictly dramatic power; and those who know his writings will exclaim—"What, then, can Niccolini be in this respect?" The fact is that "Arnaldo da Brescia," "Giovanni da Procida," "Foscarini," "Ludovico Sforza," and "Filippo Strozzi," will all live as magnificent poems, rather than as dramas; and though they have all been frequently acted, they will not probably keep their place upon the stage.

At seven o'clock in the evening of the 21st, the body was carried from the poet's residence in the Via Larga to the church of Santa Croce; and the passage of that *cortège* through the streets of Florence was, in truth, a sight worth seeing. Not that there was any of that pomp which generally turns such occasions into a display of theatrical spectacle. A battalion of the National Guard, with their band playing a funeral march, led the procession; one or two priests in simple surplices, such as attend the corpse of the very poorest citizen, preceded the body, which was borne on men's shoulders, and a very great number of the friends and admirers of the poet followed. All these made up a company of many hundred persons, and each man carried, as usual on such occasions, a wax torch in his hand. In such guise the procession passed through the street, densely thronged with compact masses of the population. For in Tuscany there is no class which does not feel that it has a share in all that contributes to the glory of Italy.

There was a good deal of murmuring among the crowd as the procession passed against the "dogs of priests," who let such a man go to his grave unattended by the honours of ecclesiastical parade. But the complaint was unjust in this case; for the absence of all ecclesiastical show arose merely from none such having been invited by those who had the management of the funeral. The circumstance, however, serves to indicate the temper of men's minds in this "Catholic" country. And that which still remains to be told, furnishes far stronger evidence pointing in the same direction.

When the body arrived at the church of Santa Croce, only those who made part of the procession, many hundreds in number, were permitted to follow it into the church; for it was wished that the funeral oration, which was to be delivered by Professor Atto Vannucci, should be heard, and if the immense mass of people had been allowed to throng the immense church, however well-intentioned might have been their behaviour, this could hardly have been possible. The great doors, therefore, were closed when the body and its immediate followers had entered. Within the church, drawn up in front of the steps leading to the high altar, were the friars to whose convent the church belongs; in front of them the bier was placed on the pavement in the midst of the enormous nave, and the followers ranged themselves in long lines on either side. Now, in order to understand the effect and significance of what followed, it is necessary to be informed that, though the friars of Santa Croce belong to one of the numerous denominations of the Franciscan order, they held exclusively the authority of the Holy Office, and were the inquisitors in Tuscany. The Inquisition, as is well known, was throughout Europe in the hands of the Dominicans. But Tuscany was an exception to this rule. There the Franciscan friars of Santa Croce were the sole inquisitors.

They were accordingly the principal agents of Rome in every attempt at encroachment on the civil power, and in every scheme for the more perfect enslavement of the souls and bodies of the people. *They* were the most ferocious enemies of the cause of liberty on every occasion. *They* were the sworn friends of the Austrians when they occupied the country; and *they* were the accomplices of that horrible atrocity of the Grand-Ducal Government, when the people were shot down in the church of Santa Croce, by troops concealed in the sacristy, for daring to commemorate the heroes who fell in fight against the Austrians at Curtatone and Montanara. With this explanation, it may be understood what stamp of men the friars of Santa Croce are, what sort of feeling exists between them and the Florentines, and what sort of welcome or blessing they were giving in their hearts to the body of such a man as the deceased poet. But there they stood, as they were compelled to stand, and heard, as they were compelled to hear, the words of Professor Vannucci, the librarian of the Magliabechian library, a staunch liberal of the old times, who has borne persecution in the cause, and one of the ablest historical writers of Tuscany. Signor Vannucci said that he would leave to others the task of setting forth the literary triumphs of the deceased; he would only record here that he was for fifty years the poet of liberty; that in the days of slavery he thought and wrote with freedom; that he always kept alive the thought of the rescue of

Italy, and used all the instruments of eloquence and art, all the arms supplied by reason and emotion to combat her enemies, to console the woes of the people, to reawaken dead hopes, to rekindle faith in Italian hearts, and to prepare the way for the future. * * * * When the ferocious sacerdotal and Austrian despotism was all-powerful, when intestine discord opened our country to foreign plunderers, he assailed boldly, indefatigably, with open front, all our enemies,—the Roman court, that “greedy harlot of kings, committing fornication with every tyrant, that vexes earth” (the words quoted are those of Niccolini); that crafty race, cruel with the weak, crouching to the strong, which “always finding its safety in the public terror, never had a tear for Italy;” which called itself oppressed whenever it was prevented from exercising oppression, which condemned Italy to “eternal wedlock with a sinister spouse;” which always called down the ferocious German wolf on the peoples, whom it called, and still calls, *its flock*; which trampled on the altar to mount a throne, and contaminated itself with the sacrilege of temporal dominion.”

It may be easily imagined, or perhaps it may be better said, that it is impossible for those who do not know the capacities of the expressive Italian features for the manifestation of emotion, and their incapacity for concealing it, to imagine the looks of that band of friars, as they had to stand and listen to these and other such words, echoed by the walls, which were the home of the Inquisition and its terrors. There stood the shaven, uncowed band, with the glaring light of the torches and the eyes of the assembled hundreds on their livid faces, scowling and writhing under the punishment. Their suffering was so evident, that the scene became almost painful, and small as might be one’s sympathy with these incorrigible foes of all that is good for humanity, one could hardly help feeling relieved when the orator ceased; the lay multitude slowly streamed out of the church, and left the speaker’s victims to console themselves for their sufferings by such “services” of their own imagining, as in the privacy of their retreat, and the silence of night, they might, in sacerdotal fashion, find relief in bestowing on the unconscious dead.

GOSSIP ABOUT THE WHITE FISH FISHERIES.

THERE is no organization for carrying on the white fisheries, as there is in the case of the oyster or herring fisheries. So far as our most plentiful table fish are concerned, the supply seems utterly dependant on chance, or the will of individuals. A man (or company) owning a boat goes to sea just when he pleases. In Scotland, where a great quantity of the best white fish are caught, this is particularly the case, and the consequence is, that at the season of the year when the principal white and flat fish are in their prime condition, they are not to be procured; the general answer to all inquiries as to the scarcity being, “The men are away at the herring.” This is true; the best boats and the strongest and most intelligent fishermen have removed for a time to distant fishing towns to engage in the capture of the herring, which forms, during the summer months, a noted industrial feature on our coasts, and allures to the scene all the best fishermen, in the hope that they may gain a prize in the great herring lottery, prizes in which are not uncommon, as some boats will take fish to the extent of two hundred barrels in the course of a week or two. Only a few decrepid old men are left to try their luck with the cod and haddock lines; the result being, as we have stated above, a scarcity of white and flat fish, which is beginning to be felt in greatly enhanced prices. An intelligent Newhaven fishwife recently informed us that the price of white fish in Edinburgh—a city close to the sea—has been more than quadrupled within the last twenty years. She remembers when the prime haddocks were sold at about one penny per pound weight, and in her time herrings have been so plentiful that no person would purchase them! We shall not soon look again on such times.

The white fisheries embrace the prominent members of the Gadidae and Pleuronectidae families, in other words, cod, haddock, whiting, turbot, soles, plaice, and other flat fish too numerous to particularise here. All these were at one time very plentiful in the British seas, and could always be caught in large quantities round our coasts. At present they are not quite so abundant, and as we are totally destitute of trustworthy statistics of the produce of the white-fish fisheries, we can only in a general way guess that the supply is diminishing. The old fishing banks are now pretty much exhausted, and no new ones have been recently discovered to help our supplies. The Rockall bank may yield fish suitable to be cured, but it is too distant ever to be made available as a dépôt for the supply of Billingsgate. Welled smacks or even steam-boats are very well for short distances, but when the fish are confined in the wells for a few days they become deteriorated, and the mortality on the passage is so great that it does not pay on the whole to carry on that branch of the fish trade, especially when the distance of the market is extreme.

The Gadidae family is numerous and its members valuable for table purposes; three of the fishes of that genus are particularly in request, viz., whiting, cod, and haddock. These are the three most frequently eaten in a fresh state; there are others of the family which are extensively captured for the purpose of being dried and salted, among which are the cod, the ling, &c. There is nothing particular in the mode of capturing haddocks or cod-fish. Strong lines of cord of great length, each having a few hundred hooks attached, are the instruments made use of; the hooks are baited with a muscle, clam, or piece of herring, and being sunk in the water in a favourable locality, a few dozens of fish may be obtained at each haul. The fish taken are very often small in size, and not in good condition, but as they are killed before the fishermen can notice them, they must be used, as it is of no use to throw them into the water. This accounts for the immense quantities of small haddocks and whittings which in some seasons are brought to market.

Vast quantities of cod-fish are sent to market in a dried or cured state, and the great seat of the cod-fishery for curing purposes is at Newfoundland. But considerable numbers of cod and ling are likewise cured on the coasts of Scotland. The mode of cure is quite simple. The fish must be cured as soon as possible after it has been caught. A few having been brought on shore, they are at once split up from head to tail, and by copious washing thoroughly cleansed from all particles of blood. A piece of the backbone being cut away, they are then drained, and afterwards laid down in long vats, covered with salt, heavy weights being placed upon them to keep them thoroughly under the action of the pickle. By and by they are taken

out of the vat, and are once more drained, being at the same time carefully washed and brushed to prevent the collection of any kind of impurity. Next the fish are *pined* by exposure to the sun and air; in other words, they are bleached by being spread out individually on the sandy beach, or upon such rocks or stones as may be convenient. After this process has been gone through, the fish are then collected into little heaps, which are technically called *steeples*. When the *bloom*, or whitish appearance which after a time they assume, comes out on the dried fish, the process is finished, and they are then quite ready for market. The consumption of dried cod or ling is very large, and extends over the whole globe; vast quantities of it are prepared for the Roman Catholic communities of continental Europe, who make use of it on the occurrence of the fast-days instituted by their Church.

The haddock has ever been a favourite fish, and the quantities of it which are annually consumed are really wonderful. Vast numbers used to be taken in the Firth of Forth, but from recent inquiries at Newhaven, we find the supply has considerably decreased of late years, and that the local fishermen have to proceed to considerable distances in order to procure the necessary quantity. The old belief in the migratory habits of fish comes again into notice in connection with the haddock. Pennant having taught us that the haddock appeared periodically in great quantities about mid-winter, that theory is still believed, although the appearance of this fish in shoals may be easily explained, from the local habits of most of the denizens of the great deep. It is said that, “in stormy weather, the haddock refuses every kind of bait, and seeks refuge among marine plants in the deepest parts of the ocean, where it remains until the violence of the elements is somewhat subsided.”

The scarcity of fresh haddocks may be accounted for by the immense quantities which are converted into “Finnan haddies”—a well known breakfast luxury no longer confined to Scotland. It is difficult to procure genuine Finns, smoked in the original way by means of peat-reek: like everything else for which there is a great demand, Finns are now manufactured in quantity; and, to make the trade a profitable one, they are cured by the hundred in smoking houses built for the purpose, and are smoked by burning wood or saw-dust, which, however, does not give them the proper *goût*. In fact, the wood-smoked Finns, except that they are fish, have no more the right flavour than has Scotch marmalade manufactured from turnips instead of bitter oranges. Fifty years ago it was different; then the haddocks were smoked in small quantities in the fishing villages between Aberdeen and Stonehaven, and entirely over a peat fire. The peat-reek conferred upon them that peculiar flavour which gave them a reputation. The fisher-wives used to pack small quantities of these delicately cured fish into a basket, and give them to the guard of the “Defiance” coach, which ran between Aberdeen and Edinburgh, and the guard brought them to town, confiding them for sale to a brother who dealt in provisions; and it is known that out of the various transactions which thus arose, the two made, in the course of time, a handsome profit. The fame of that kind of fish rapidly spread, so that cargoes used to be brought by steamboat, and they are now carried by railway to all parts of the country with great celerity, the demand being so great as to induce men to foist on the public any kind of cure they can manage to accomplish. Good Finns can seldom now be had even in Edinburgh under the price of sixpence per pound weight.

As to when the Gadidae and other white fish are in their proper season it is difficult to say. Their times of sickness are not so marked as to prevent many of the varieties from being in use all the year round. Different countries must have different seasons. We know, for instance, that it is proper to have the close time of one salmon river at a different date from that of some other stream that may be further south or further north. There are also exceptional spawning seasons in the case of individual fish, so that we are quite safe in setting down that the sole and turbot* are in season all the year round. The following tabular view of the dates when our principal fishes are in season may be found useful:—

FISH TABLE.
S. denotes that the Fish is in Season; F. in Finest Season; and O. out of Season.

	Jan.	Feb.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Brill	S	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	S	S	S
Carp	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Cockles	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	S
Cod	F	S	S	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	F
Crabs	O	O	S	F	F	F	F	F	O	O	O	O
Dabs	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	O
Dace	F	F	O	O	O	S	S	F	F	F	F	S
Eels	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	S	F	F	F	S
Flounders	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S
Gurnets	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O
Haddocks	S	S	O	S	S	S	S	S	F	F	F	F
Halibut	S	F	F	S	S	F	F	S	S	S	S	S
Herrings	S	O	O	O	S	S	F	F	S	S	S	S
Ling	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S
Lobsters	O	O	O	S	F	F	F	S	S	O	O	O
Mackerel	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	O
Mullet	O	O	S	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	O
Mussels	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S
Oysters	S	S	F	F	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S
Plaice	S	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Prawns	O	O	S	F	F	F	F	S	S	O	O	O
Salmon	O	S	S	F	F	F	F	S	S	O	O	O
Shrimps	S	S	S	S	S	O	O	O	S	S	S	S
Skate	F	F	F	F	F	F	S	S	O	S	S	S
Smelts	S	S	S	S	S	O	O	S	O	O	S	S
Soles	S	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S
Sprats	S	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	S	S	S
Thornback	O	O	O	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	S	O
Trout	O	S	F	F	F	F	S	S	S	O	O	O
Turbot	S	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	F
Whittings	F	F	O	O	O	S	S	S	S	F	F	F

* Yarrell, for instance (edition of 1836), does not state at what season the turbot spawns; but we know it to be early in the year, and other naturalists tell us vaguely enough that turbot spawn in the spring.

There are upwards of a dozen kinds of flat fish that are popular for table purposes. One of these is a very large fish known as the holibut (*Hippoglossus vulgaris*), which has been found in the northern seas to attain occasionally a weight of from three to four hundred pounds. One of this species of fish of extraordinary size was brought to the Edinburgh market in April, 1828; it was seven feet and a half long, and upwards of three feet broad, and it weighed three hundred and twenty pounds! The flavour of the holibut is not very delicate, although it has been frequently mistaken for turbot by those not conversant in fish history. The true turbot (*Rhombus maximus*) is the especial delight of aldermanic epicures, and fabulous sums have been given at different times by rich persons in order to secure a turbot for their dinner-table. This fine fish is, or rather used to be, largely taken on our own coasts; but now we have to rely upon more distant fishing-grounds for a large portion of our supply. The old complaint of our ignorance of fish-habits must be again reiterated here; for it is not long since it was supposed that the turbot was a kind of migratory fish that might be caught at one place to-day and at another to-morrow! The late Mr. Wilson, even, who ought to have known better, said, in writing about this fish:—

"The English markets are largely supplied from the various sandbanks which lie between our eastern coasts and Holland. The Dutch turbot fishery begins about the end of March, a few leagues to the south of Scheveling. The fish *proceed* northwards as the season advances, and in April and May are found in great shoals upon the banks called the Broad Forties. Early in June they surround the island of Heligoland, where the fishery continues to the middle of August, and then terminates for the year. At the beginning of the season the trawl-net is chiefly used; but on the occurrence of warm weather, the fish retire to deeper water, and to banks of rougher ground, where the long line is indispensable."

Sea-side visitors would do well to get on board some of the trawlers and watch the mode of capture—there is no more interesting way of passing a holiday than to watch or take a slight share in the industry of the neighbourhood where one may be located.

The smaller varieties of the flat fish—such as Muller's top-knot, the flounder, whiff, dab, plaice, &c.,—we need not particularly notice, except to say that immense quantities of them are annually consumed in London and other cities. Mr. Mayhew, in some of his investigations, found out that upwards of thirty-three millions of plaice are annually required to aid the London commissariat! But that is nothing. Three times that quantity of soles are needed—one would fancy this to be a statistic of shoe-leather,—the exact figure given by Mr. Mayhew is 97,520,000! This is not in the least exaggerated. We discussed these figures with a Billingsgate salesman a few weeks ago, and he thinks them quite within the mark.

The sole is almost entirely taken by means of the trawl-net; it is quite a ground fish, and inhabits the sandy places round the coast, feeding on the minor crustacea, and on the spawn and young of various kinds of fish. Good supplies of this popular fish are taken on the west coast of England, and they are said to be very plentiful in the Irish seas; indeed, all kinds of fish are said to inhabit the waters which surround the Emerald Isle. There can be no doubt of this, at any rate, that the fishing on the Irish coasts has never been so vigorously prosecuted as on the coasts of Scotland and England—so that there has been a greater chance for the best kinds of white fish to thrive and multiply.

A curiosity in connection with fish life is worthy of notice in this gossip, viz., the existence of a salt-water fishpond or preserve. There have been several of these in operation both in Scotland and England; but the one which is best known is the Logan pond, in Galloway. It is a gigantic natural basin formed in the solid rock, one hundred and sixty feet in circumference, and thirty feet in depth, and it communicates with the sea by a narrow passage. It is some years now since we visited the pond, but so far as we know it still exists. An intelligent fisherman used to have charge of this salt-water preserve, which was well stocked with all kinds of white fish, and in particular with cod, some of which were large in size, and of venerable age. Some of these fish were very tame, and would take food from a person's naked hand. They appeared to be on the watch at feeding time, and eagerly devoured the boiled mess of whelks, limpets, and other testacea which was thrown to them by the keeper. Whilst the keeper is fishing in the adjoining bay, all the finest fish are kept and placed in the pond; those injured in the capture are cut up as food for the prisoners. Might not a hint be taken from this pond by our pisciculturists? If we could do for our more valuable sea-fishes what we can do for the salmon, viz., preserve their eggs and protect the young fry, for a year or so, it would in time tell in favour of our annual supplies. Whilst on the subject of fishponds, the trout-feeding establishment at Woolf's-brunnen, near Heidelberg, may be briefly noticed. There is a nice little inn near the pond, which is fed by a small tributary of the Neckar, and the landlord being custodian-general of the trout, can supply a dish of fine fish on the very shortest notice. We cull the following description from a recent account of the Ponds:—

"About half a mile to the south of the beautiful ruins of the castle of Heidelberg is a deep ravine in the mountain side, through which passes a small rivulet on its way to join the Neckar, in the valley below. At a level part of the ravine the bed of the rivulet is formed into three ponds, one above the other, communicating with each other, though separated by means of iron gratings. The trout spawn naturally in the upper part of the rivulet, and their fry soon find their way into the upper pond. Here, as well as in the lower ponds, they find protection under boards placed in the water upon short stakes, and the protection is extended to them by fine, large trees, chiefly planes, which cast their sombre shades over the ponds from both sides of the ravine. The spot is thus rendered truly romantic and interesting. The trout are not only protected, but fed every day with small fishes caught by people in the Neckar, and other substances afforded them by their keeper. Under this treatment many of them have attained a large size, perhaps from six to seven pounds in weight. It is curious to watch the habits of the trout. They are evidently not the least afraid of the spectators, though the smallest ones all take shelter under the boards on their approach. When a small fish is thrown into the pond you would expect that the nearest trout would immediately seize it; but it is not so. Some large fellow, lurking behind a stone or under the bank of the pond, will rush at a furious rate and seize the prey, and carry it to the bottom and devour it in an incredibly short time. The water is so pure that every motion of the trouts is easily perceptible; and it is with them as with all other creatures, each spends its time according to its own mind—some seemingly desirous of leading an active life, whilst others float and doze away most of their time."

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

WHAT shall be done with our sewage? is one of the great questions of the day. Last summer a very active paper war was carried on in the metropolis between the partisans of perchloride of iron and those of chloride of lime, pamphlets and reports being freely fired off at each other, until sufficient mutual damage was done to render it highly improbable that either of these two pet schemes would be the one ultimately adopted. At the first the advocates of perchloride of iron seemed to be getting decidedly the advantage, and this plan was on the point of being definitely agreed upon when the hostile forces, headed by Dr. Letheby, made the discovery that a very large quantity of arsenic, which existed in the perchloride of iron as an impurity, would thereby be introduced into the Thames, to the manifest injury of the numerous fishes which are supposed to inhabit that river, as well as the dwellers in those portions of the metropolis whose drinking-water supply is drawn from the diluted sewage, which, to the extent of about thirty millions of gallons daily, flows down our *Cloaca Maxima*.

Pending the renewal of the discussion, it may interest the public to know that other places, which are not so highly favoured by theory and science as the metropolis, have been for a long time past in possession of a very easy and inexpensive means of effecting all that the most sanguine partisan has claimed for either of the above-named schemes. At St. Thomas's, Exeter, for instance, the whole of the sewage has been, for many months past, disinfected with the greatest ease, and, at the ridiculously small cost of about one shilling per day, being converted into an excellent manure. Last year the Board of Health of that district were indicted for a nuisance, arising from their sewage outfall annoying the servants and passengers of an adjoining railway: they were about to expend £1,200 to convey the sewage to a more distant point and discharge it into the river Exe, when the attention of the Board was called to the successful use of carbolic acid by Mr. McDougal, in disinfecting the sewage of Carlisle, and after a long discussion they determined to adopt the same plan.

The agent now used by the local board is carbolic acid in combination with lime. This acid is one of the products of the distillation of coal, and could be obtained in sufficient quantity and purity for all desired purposes at an inconsiderable expense. It is very similar in its properties to creosote, with which, indeed, it is considered by some chemists to be identical. The average quantity of carbolic acid used per day since the Exeter board first employed it, has been one gallon, at a cost of 11d., diluted with lime water in the proportion of 1 in 250, and applied to the sewage about ten hours per day, Sundays excepted. The result, according to the report of Mr. Ellis, the surveyor, has been most satisfactory. The action of the disinfectant on the sewage is not, as many suppose it to be, of a temporary character, viz., to abate and destroy smells for a time only; but, on the contrary, the carbolic acid possesses considerable power to disinfect, owing to its property of arresting decomposition, and thereby preventing the sewage becoming putrescent, and giving off offensive emanations, or again reverting to its former state; so that, when the sewage is once disinfected at the dépôt, or in any part of the sewer, it matters little how long it takes passing off; decomposition cannot again set in, nor can any noxious gases be afterwards evolved into the atmosphere. As the disinfectant is applied to the sewage previous to the commencement of decomposition, ammonia is not formed, but becomes locked up and preserved in the sewage, both in the liquid and solid state, which necessarily enhances its value very much in an agricultural point of view; this is of the utmost importance, as it renders the sanitary state of the atmosphere in the immediate neighbourhood where the sewage passes comparatively pure.

The same agent has also been successfully applied in horse-boxes and fish-vans on the South Devon Railway; and some of the disinfectant has been used with great advantage in the most offensive parts of the St. Thomas Lunatic Asylum, the superintendent bearing testimony to its high qualities as a deodorizing agent, and stating that its effects are instantaneous; whilst gentlemen who have personally examined some of the deodorized sewage report that not the slightest trace of noxious effluvia can be detected, nothing being perceived but the rather pleasant smell of carbolic acid.

The disinfecting having thus been satisfactorily overcome, the next important subject is to utilise and render it remunerative. Although experiments with this object have not yet been made at Exeter on a large scale, there can be no doubt that, in its deodorized form, the sewage will be a very valuable manure, owing to its valuable constituents being entirely locked up and retained until absorbed by the soil. This is a very important question, and one possessing a national, even more than a local interest; for, under the present system of allowing sewage to empty into and pollute our rivers, we are rapidly exhausting the soil, and depriving it of those beef-growing properties which are now obliged to be returned to it in the form of guano, at a vast annual expense.

A few private experiments have already been made with the Exeter sewage, which speak highly for its fertilizing qualities. One gentleman procured a barrel of it after deodorization, and spread the contents about an inch and a quarter thick over a poor hungry piece of land. This was on Thursday night, and after spreading it he knelt down, but could not distinguish any smell. The next afternoon he sowed three drills of mustard and three of rape. On the next Monday morning the seed was up, vigorously showing how actively stimulated it had been by the manure.

It was estimated that to produce the same result with stable manure, it would have to be spread over the land ankle deep. Another quantity of the manure was sent to a gentleman in Scotland, who used it for turnips, and reported that he had never seen a better crop in his life.

The great objection to sewage of this kind is its dilution, which renders it necessary to apply it in considerable bulk as a liquid to the land. This probably accounts for the want of success met with by some persons, who have attempted to use it in small quantities like guano.

SCIENTIFIC INTELLIGENCE.

ASTRONOMY.

A SHORT time since we gave in the columns of this journal elliptic elements for the great comet, calculated by M. Seeling. The following revised set is by M. Anwers, of Königsberg:—

$\tau = 1861$. June 11.55. G.M.T.

$\pi = 249^{\circ} 7'$
 $\Omega = 278^{\circ} 58'$
 $i = 85^{\circ} 28'$
 $e = 0.98845$
 $q = 0.8223$
 $a = 71.2161$
 $p = 601$ years.

These results are derived from observations extending over eighty days, and are to be preferred to Seeling's.

The following elements of Panopea (70) are by M. Thirion, of the Imperial Observatory, Paris:—

$\tau = 1861$. May 22.52. P.M.T.

$\lambda = 222^{\circ} 25' 9''$
 $\pi = 85^{\circ} 27' 35''$
 $\Omega = 47^{\circ} 23' 42''$
 $i = 15^{\circ} 16' 47''$
 $\phi = 4^{\circ} 2' 58''$
 $a = 2.4994$
 $\mu = 897.93''$

The minor planet discovered last year by M. Chauchaud (No. 60) has never yet been named. Accordingly MM. Luther and Peters propose to call it *Baucis*.

PSEUDO-DAPHNE, (56) Goldschmidt, under the new nomenclature, the lost planet, has been found again, thanks to the untiring industry of its original discoverer. Its history is so remarkable, that we cannot do better than give it in M. Goldschmidt's own words:—

"The discovery of the planet Daphne was made by me on the 22nd of May, 1856, while looking for the great comet of 1556. When found it was already in quadrature, and its observation became more and more difficult in the twilight. The elements, calculated on only two or three days of observation, failed to give its exact position for its re-appearance. I was a long time occupied in looking for it in the summer of 1857, aided by ephemerides calculated by M. Pape; and on the 9th of September I found a planet not far from the place indicated. The calculations of M. Schubert, however, proved that this was a new planet, and not Daphne; and it has since gone under the name of Pseudo-Daphne. My search for this, in the winter of 1858, aided by M. Schubert's ephemeris, was without result. This year, thanks to the hypothetical ephemerides of Dr. Luther, of Berlin, and the beautiful Berlin map prepared by Dr. Henke, of Dresden, I succeeded, on the 27th of August, in re-discovering Pseudo-Daphne, after a three months' search."

The following ephemeris has been calculated by Dr. Luther, from the observations made since its re-discovery:—

1861.	0h. Berlin.	R.A.	Declination.	Logarithm of Distance.
Sept. 28	20	32 50	S. 10 10 4	
29	33	32	14 8	0.1362
30	34	15	19 0	
Oct. 1	35	0	23 1	
2	35	47	27 0	
3	36	35	30 8	0.1498
4	37	25	34 4	
5	38	16	37 8	
6	39	8	41 0	
7	20	40 3	S. 10 44 1	0.1634

M. Goldschmidt has also discovered that the star Lalande 40196 of the 7.8 magnitude, which was certainly visible in June last, has disappeared. In the Berlin Star Maps, Hour XX., for which we are indebted to Dr. Henke, it is noted as variable, without any other remark being made on it.

Its position and that of a neighbouring star of the 8th magnitude are as follows:—

Epoch, 1800.	R.A.	Declination.
	h. m. s.	°' "
L. 40196	20 39 23	S. 5 52 43
Star 8th magnitude	20 39 46	S. 5 51 5

This star must henceforth rank among the most remarkable of the variable stars, and strikingly resembles V Virginis, which similarly varies from the 7.8 magnitude to complete disappearance.

M. Valz, honorary director of the observatory of Marseilles, in two letters recently addressed to M. Biot (to which we briefly alluded last week), has drawn attention to the recent passage of the earth through the exterior portion of the conoid formed by the tail of the comet which recently visited us, and stated that those who do not admit the fact of this passage, have not sufficiently taken into account the greater or less transparency of the atmosphere, and the singular deviation of the comet's tail from the normal position; he has, in fact, contested one of the generally received laws of cometary bodies, that the axis more or less curved of the tail is situated entirely in the plane of the comet's orbit, and he deduces from certain observations made at Rome and Marseilles, that the axis of the tail of the last comet, instead of being so situated, formed an angle of 2 deg. 47 min. with it, and that its projection on the plane made with the radius vector an angle of 9 deg. 18 min. "deviations," to use his own language, "which modify the ideas which now obtain on the subject, and render the explanation of the phenomena of comets' tails more difficult than ever."

M. Valz arrives at these conclusions in the following manner, availing himself of the new elements of the comet calculated by M. Seeling, and observations in which the ordinary mode of obtaining the angle of position of the

tail has been much improved upon, as instead of judging of it from its direction in the field of view of the telescope, which rarely exceeds 2 deg., the position of the nucleus has been observed at the moment that the centre of the extremity of the tail has passed over a known star visible to the naked eye.

According to these new elements, the comet's ascending node is situated in long. 278 deg. 59 min. 9.5 sec., at which point the earth arrived at 9h. 58m., Paris mean time, on June 30th. Placed thus in the plane of the comet's orbit, if the tail were situated in it also, it should have appeared in the great circle passing through the sun and the comet.

Father Secchi observed at 10 h. 49 m. P.M.T., that Polaris was exactly in the middle of the tail; this difference of 51 minutes between the time of the earth's passage of the node and Father Secchi's observation necessitates the following correction.

On July 1, 11h. 48 m. P.M.T., M. Valz saw the middle of the comet's tail pass by β and γ of the Little Bear: hence we derive a movement of 12 deg. or 13 deg. in twenty-five hours. Consequently, 51 minutes before P. Secchi's observation, or at the passage of the node, the centre of the tail was 25 min. to the east of Polaris, which had transited the inferior meridian at 6 h. 30 m. P.M.T., being distant from the pole 1 deg. 8 min. at 9h. 58 m. P.M.T.; the tail of the comet was therefore distant from it 1 deg. 33 min. At this time the positions of the sun and nucleus were as follows:—

	R.A.	Decl.
Sun	99 47	N. 23 9
Nucleus	99 31	N. 46 2

The great circle passing through these positions cut the equator in AR 99 deg. 50 min., with an inclination of 85 deg. 40 min., which would bring it 4 deg. 20 min. to the east of the pole, although, as we have seen, the tail of the comet was but 1 deg. 33 min. to the east.

The deviation of the tail, then, from the plane of the orbit was 2 deg. 47 min. towards the earth, to the attraction of which body it may be attributed. To determine the deviation from the prolongation of the radius vector as projected on the plane of the orbit, M. Valz takes the following observation of the 6th of July, when the positions of the Comet and the Sun were—

	R.A.	Declination.
Comet	186 31	N. 65 4
Sun	106 0	N. 22 39

The great circle projected by the radius vector, according to them, cuts the equator in 94 deg. 49 min., with an inclination of 65 deg. 4 min."

The tail passing by α Herculis, according to M. Valz's observations, are drawn from this star to the great circle will be the apparent deviation of the tail.

Having, therefore, determined—1, the angle of 30 deg. 15 min. included between the great circle and that of the declination of α Herculis; 2, the declination of the summit of the angle, which is 33 deg. 15 min.; the deviation of the Comet's tail from the plane of its orbit is found and amounts to 9 deg. 18 min.

M. Faye, who has replied to these remarks, differs with M. Valz as to the difficulties of the problem, and states that the law above-mentioned is one of the most simple and most general we possess, for it does not depend even on the force which determines the formation of the tails; it suffices that the force follows, directly or indirectly, an action exercised by the sun, which is beyond all doubt, and it reduces itself to this, that the forces which act upon the comet, being sensibly symmetrical with regard to the radius vector, the orbits described by its particles are disposed symmetrically with regard to the plane which passes through this radius vector, and the direction of the velocity with which the centre of gravity of the comet is endued. And this plane is the plane of the comet's orbit. Thus the axis, more or less curved, of the tail will be contained in this plane, so that in perspective it will appear in the celestial vault, as an arc of a great circle, when the observer is situated, as on the 30th June last, in the plane of the comet's orbit.

M. Faye then proceeds to apply, as a second law, his hypothesis of a repulsive force* emanating from the sun, by which tangential compositing the secular acceleration of Encke's comet, and still later that of Axel Möller, has been explained.

This hypothesis as a second law needs no modification to satisfy the observations of M. Valz.

Returning to the first deviation—that from the plane of the orbit—M. Faye points out the many difficulties presented by the late comet's situation with regard to the earth, and concludes in these words:—

"If the tail of the comet really presented a certain deflection from the plain of its orbit on the 30th of June, which does not appear to me sufficiently established by the observations mentioned above, nothing can be concluded against the first law, as, according to M. Valz's own remark, this small deviation may be attributed to the attraction of the earth which had just traversed the immense cometary appendage. And if the cord uniting the extremity of the tail with the nucleus made, on the 6th July, a small angle with the radius vector in the plane of the orbit, nothing can be concluded against the ideas recently announced on the formation of comets' tails, since these ideas furnished beforehand their explanation. I see, therefore, no reason to modify the theory which accounts so simply for these grand phenomena, as showing their connection with the elementary principles of mechanics."

METEOROLOGY.

ELECTRICITY has again been called in to the aid of another branch of astronomical inquiry, and with the most perfect success.

For this new application, we are indebted to Father Secchi, who, on the occasion of the annual phenomenon of shooting stars last month, caused simultaneous observations to be made upon them at Rome and Civita Vecchia by means of a telegraphic communication between the two places. The results obtained by this method are most conclusive, and the doubts which

* See THE LONDON REVIEW, No. 62, p. 301.

naturally resulted from the imperfection of anterior observations have been completely removed.

THE OBSERVATIONS made on the nights of the 6th, 10th, and 11th of August, with the assistance of the telegraph, have enabled him to establish the following facts, already foreshadowed by those made from the 4th to the 8th in the ordinary manner, aided only by chronometers regulated beforehand by the telegraph each day at noon:—

1. A great number of the shooting stars were rigorously synchronous at the two stations, the telegraphic signal to Civita Vecchia from Rome being given at the same moment as the signal to Rome from Civita. The number of these observations has been from eight to ten from the 5th to the 8th of August; on the 10th thirty-four were recorded; and on the 11th, sixteen in an hour and a half.

2. On the evenings of the 10th and 11th, in addition to the time, the apparent places in which the stars were seen at Civita were also recorded, and their enormous parallax was at once seen. In the case of the stars near the zenith this sometimes exceeded 35 deg., so that the very constellation in which they were seen from Rome was different.

The distance from Rome to Civita Vecchia is but 65 kilometres, so that these meteors are within the limits of the earth's atmosphere is placed beyond a doubt.

The stars observed took their ordinary direction, concentrating themselves in the space occupied by Cepheus and Cassiopeia; and the numbers observed on the 10th greatly exceeded those seen on any other night.

The observations made by M. Couvier Gravier on these phenomena, with a different end in view, have led to a very interesting result.

M. Gravier found that the mean number per hour at midnight from the 15th July was 6.5; on the 29th of July this number had increased to 13.6; on the 1st of August to 22.4; on the 5th to 27.2; on the 18th the epoch of the maximum number to 50.8; and on the 13th this number was again reduced to 24.4.

If a curve be traced with these numbers, it will be seen that the hourly average increases and decreases regularly.

In 1858 the maximum number per hour was but 39.3, showing an augmentation of 11.5 in three years at the present time.

All observations tend to show that the year 1858 marked a minimum of the number which had been decreasing since 1848, when it was highest, being as great as 110 per hour. In ten years the number of shooting-stars gradually decreased, as we have seen, to the extent of 70.7.

Since 1859, the average number appears to have recommenced its upward march, and in two years the numbers have increased by 11.5. We may therefore expect now to see the phenomenon of shooting-stars renewed each August with greater brilliancy.

CHEMISTRY.

WE HAVE to thank Professor Malaguti, of Rennes, for a valuable addition to our knowledge of agricultural chemistry.

For some time past he has been subjecting the various kinds of Patagonian guano to a searching analysis, and has arrived at the following results, which are very important:—

"Shag guano, so called from a kind of cormorant which sailors at Cape Horn call Shags, somewhat resembles the guano of Peru; it is not very homogeneous, being mixed up with feathers, fragments of bone, and a few crystals of carbonate of ammonia. It has an ammoniacal smell, contains small quantities of oxalates, nitrates, chlorides, acid phosphates, about a third of its weight of triassic phosphate of lime, and about half its weight of organic nitrogenized substances. The quantity of nitrogen, the most important item in fertilizing matter, varies in this guano between 8 and 12 per cent. Lion guano, so called from the kind of seal called sea lion, found in the cavities of the rocks on the sea-shore, which those creatures frequent, is a mixture of the remains of amphibious animals, and bones, fur, scales, and balls of a humic or earthy appearance, containing a large number of small crystals in the form of needles; also fragments of a yellowish rock, resembling sulphate of lime, crystals of struvite, and certain prismatic crystals of a brown colour which do not appear to have been ever described. The yellowish rock has the structure of an aggregate, far from compact, of small crystals. When calcined it turns to a brilliant white; its density is 2.174, but is not uniform, the organic matter it contains, amounting to 23 per cent., not being equally distributed throughout the mass. It contains, moreover, 57 per cent. of triassic phosphate of lime, 10 per cent. of acid phosphate of lime, and the rest consists of sand, sulphate of lime, and traces of fluorides of calcium. As for the brown prismatic crystals, they are not perfectly transparent on account of the earthy particles they contain. Their true crystalline form is difficult to ascertain on account of the manner in which they are grouped, sometimes in the shape of a cross, at others of a fan, a spheroid covered with pricks, &c. Their mean density is 2.267; they are partly soluble in water, imparting to it a certain degree of acidity. They contain 23 per cent. of organic matter, 51 of triassic phosphate of lime, 22 of acid phosphate of lime, and traces of silica, fluoride of calcium, and alkalies. Penguin guano does not display such a heterogeneous composition as the preceding kinds, yet it contains some feathers, bones of birds, a multitude of little white globules which pressure easily reduces to powder, and crystals of struvite. The smell of the mass is somewhat ammoniacal. When moistened it becomes acid; if brought into contact with acids it produces a slight effervescence; it contains less than 2 per cent. of acid phosphate of lime, then certain soluble salts, including nitrates, then a certain quantity of triassic phosphate of lime, aluminium, and iron; but no oxalates, or uric acid. It contains from 4 to 4.35 per cent. of nitrogen; all the phosphates it contains barely amount to 35 per cent., and they are chiefly phosphate of alumina, which renders this guano more soluble in acids before calcination than after. The white globules above alluded to are composed of this phosphate, containing 32 per cent. of phosphoric acid. The last kind of guano which has been analysed is that quarried, so to speak, from beds lying under a layer of sand sometimes three feet deep. When cut out it is in a state of plastic paste, which must be left to dry in the open air for three months before it is shipped to Europe. This kind also contains globules of phosphate of alumina; and though it does not contain crystals of struvite, it, on the other hand, has large rectangular pyramids of ammoniacal-magnesian phosphate. It contains from one to three per cent. of nitrogen, and from 16 to 39 per cent. of phosphates, but no remains of animals, such as bones, feathers, or hair." M. Malaguti believes it to be Penguin guano modified by the action of ages.

PHOTOGRAPHY.

M. M. J. GERLACH, Professor of Anatomy and Physiology at Erlangen, has lately employed photography, as a means of facilitating microscopic investigations, with great success. He has first obtained a negative, by means of an adaptation of Oberhäuser's microscope, and of this, by means of another apparatus, he procures an enlarged positive, and if this is not large enough, the same operation is repeated on the positive last obtained.

By these means he has obtained photographs of objects magnified 1,000 diameters; among them we may name the shell of *Lepisma Saccharium*, and the striped fibres of the muscles of a frog.

INVENTIONS AND DISCOVERIES.

THE TRANSPARENCY and evenness of the collodion film when formed on glass is well known to most of our readers. If made from suitable materials it is excessively tough, and can be made of any desired thickness, and by the addition of gutta-percha, india-rubber, &c., a great range of elasticity, pliability, and hardness may be produced. It has recently been proposed to apply these sheets of dried collodion (which, if made of good pyroxyline, will be colourless and transparent) to several useful purposes. Out of a mass of it, it is easy with proper tools to work any desired form. The dried collodion possesses the physical properties of many of the most valuable materials used in the arts; it may be substituted for ivory, horn, wood, glass, &c., for the manufacture of statuary, buttons, billiard balls, &c., and in many cases possesses a decided advantage over the usual materials.

IT HAS long been known that by placing near the flame of ordinary gas-burners a receptacle containing coal naphtha, and allowing the gas to pass through this, the brilliancy of the light is much increased.

It is further stated that by the use of this process a saving of one-half may be made in the expense of lighting by gas. To test the accuracy of this assertion, experiments have lately been made in London, under the authority of the Commissioners of Sewers. Moorgate-street was selected for the trial, there being in it few shops, and only one or two private lamps. The lamps experimented on were twelve in number, six upon the western side, fitted in the ordinary way with burners, and consuming, upon the average, five cubic feet of gas an hour; and six upon the eastern side fitted with burners having attached to them the newly-invented apparatus, and consuming two and a half cubic feet an hour. The experiment extended over thirty nights. The burners without the apparatus consumed about 4.39 cubic feet per hour; while the burners with the apparatus consumed only 2.09 cubic feet per hour. The district inspector of the commission, who saw the lamps nightly, reported that the light given was perfectly equal. The engineer of the commission, who principally conducted the experiments, is, however, inclined to think that the lights are not equal in density. He states that three cubic feet of gas, carburetted by means of the naphtha, are equal to five cubic feet of gas not carburetted.

According to this assumption the reduction of the cost of each lamp by the adoption of the new process will be 20s. per year, and the annual saving in the city will be £2,825.

A REMARKABLE circumstance has tended to interfere considerably with the brilliancy and steadiness of the magneto-electric light, with which some of the squares of Paris are now illuminated. The attraction which any bright light at night exercises upon insects is notorious, and every evening—especially after a very warm day—clouds of insects collect around the intensely brilliant points of light, each being irresistibly drawn towards the bright poles of ignited carbon, where they are of course instantly broiled to death. The numbers that crowd to it are so enormous that the light appears at times to be almost extinguished by burning insects; and every morning the bodies of these unfortunates suicides are found heaped up by tens of thousands at the bottom of the lantern. For this reason it has been found necessary to encase the lamp in glass, instead of having the carbon poles exposed to the air. This is, however, attended with considerable loss of light, as even the most transparent glass has been found to obstruct upwards of ten per cent. of the incident rays.

AMONGST THE MULTITUDE of materials which have been proposed for the manufacture of paper, perhaps wood has been suggested the greatest number of times. On more than one occasion the manufacture has been actually carried out, and we saw some years ago really good paper for printing purposes produced from deal shavings by the patent of J. & C. Watt. It is now said that a French lady has succeeded in manufacturing excellent paper from wood, and at a price much lower than that made from rags. Her method consists chiefly in the use of a new kind of machinery for reducing the wood to fine fibres, which are afterwards treated with the alkalis and acids necessary to reduce them to pulp, and the composition is finally bleached by the action of chlorine. By means of a series of parallel vertical wheels, armed with fine points, which are caused to pass over the surface of the wood in the direction of its fibres, the surface of the wood is marked, and the outer layer is formed into a kind of net, without woof, composed of separate threads. This layer of fine threads is afterwards removed by means of a plane, which is passed across the wood, and the portion thus removed, which resembles lint or flax, is then treated with chlorine, &c. Specimens have thus been made consisting of a mixture of 80 per cent. of wood-pulp, and 20 per cent. of rag-pulp, and sheets have been tried by printers, lithographers, and others, with very satisfactory results. It is the unanimous opinion of the engravers and lithographers who have used it, that paper made according to this method, from wood, and which costs only £16 per ton, is quite equal to the China paper, which costs £214 per ton. It is confidently expected that experiments upon a larger scale will confirm the results already obtained.

The most ingenious method of disintegrating the fibre of wood which we have yet heard of is a Yankee "notion." Wood is placed in a cannon, the mouth of which is plugged up. High-pressure steam is then forced in through the touch-hole, and when the pressure rises to sufficient degree, the plug, together with the wood, is blown out, the latter being reduced to the appearance of wool by the expansive force of the steam, with which its pores have been filled whilst in the cannon.

CELESTIAL PHENOMENA.

OCTOBER.

FREELY and more feebly day by day does our great light giver now climb the mid heaven, responsive to those influences which are bidding it visit our sister hemisphere, and leave us for a time to rest content with shortened days and wintry blasts :—

" Far, far o'er hill and dale
Green woods are changing,
Autumn her many hues
Slowly arranging."

And rapidly, too, is he leaving us ; from 3 deg. 17 min. of south declination at the beginning of the month the sun will have arrived at S. 14 deg. 12 min. by the 31st, when, however, his pace will have slackened from 58 seconds of declination per hour on the first to 48 seconds on the last day of the month.

In consequence of this rapid retreat from our northern latitude the sun's path in the heavens will be less and less elevated, and becoming reduced at the same time the points of sunrise and sunset which were E. and W. at the Equinox last month, will travel slowly southward until the winter solstice, when, commencing their backward march, they will reach the E. and W. again at the vernal equinox, and then oscillate similarly northward.

Our "rebellious satellite" rises 21 minutes after the sun on the 4th, is shorn of its harvest honours at 4 minutes to 7 a.m., and sets, a new moon, half an hour before the sun, at two minutes past 5.

On the evening of the 7th, it may be seen after sunset to the right of a line joining α and β Scorpii ; on the 8th, near θ Ophiuchi ; on the 10th, the star B.A.C. 6607, of the sixth magnitude, will be occulted at 11h. 26m., Greenwich mean time ; and on the 11th, the moon will leave Sagittarius, and enter the constellation Capricornus. Thence it glides through Aquarius, reaching Pisces on the 15th, and occulting 9 and $\frac{1}{2}$ of that constellation at 10h. 24m. and 10h. 40m. Greenwich mean time respectively, the reappearances occurring at 11h. 41m. and 11h. 28m. Thence entering Aries on the 18th, ξ Arietis, it occulted at 7h. 16m. Greenwich mean time on the 20th. The remaining occultations during the month are as follow :—

Day.	Stars.	Disapp.	Reapp.	Greenwich Mean Time.
22	103 Tauri	12:35	13:56	
23	3 Geminorum	18:37		Near approaches
24	δ Geminorum	11:48		only.

Among the fixed stars, the following constellations culminate at ten o'clock :—The body of Ursa Major, tail of Draco, Cepheus, Pegasus, Aquarius, and the head of Piscis Australis ; while beginning from the north point of the horizon and going southward through the east, Leo Minor, Lynx, Gemini, Orion, the upper reach of Eridanus and Cetus are rising ; and going northward through the west, the tail of Piscis Australis, the robe of Sagittarius, Ophiuchus, the head of Serpens, Boötes, and Canes Venatici are setting.

Midway between Aquarius and Sagittarius, and coming on to the meridian about eight o'clock, is situate Capricornus, of which constellation β^1 and β^2 , and the adjacent stars, in the words of Admiral Smyth, our great authority on these matters, "from their easy situation, form an admirable criterion for proving the performance of telescopes in light, colour, penetration, and definition."

More particularly would we recommend as a test to those who possess great optical power, the star marked X in the accompanying diagram.



This consists of two very delicate objects of the 17th and 18th magnitude, 3 sec. apart, forming the vertex of an obtuse angle and nearly isosceles triangle with β^1 and β^2 . The telescope which will not separate this pair, we have Sir John Herschel's authority for stating, will not show the satellites of Uranus. As this planet will be most favourably situated for observation next December, we have beforehand, in this double star, a test of the capability of our instrument.

γ Draconis, which passes the meridian early in the evening, in declination N. 51 deg. 30 min. 39.9 sec., on the 8th, is the Greenwich zenith star, and but little removed from the true zenith, the latitude of the observatory being N. 51 deg. 28 min. 28.3 sec. This star is ever memorable in the annals of astronomy, the grand discovery of the aberration of light by Bradley having resulted from observations made upon it ; and strange to say this discovery, as later that of the physical connection of double stars, was made in the search after parallax.

The theory of the aberration of light is this :—If light be propagated in time, the apparent place of a fixed object will not be the same when the eye is at rest as when it is moving in any other direction than that of the line passing through the eye and the object ; and that when the eye is moving in different directions the apparent place of the object will be different.

This may be illustrated in the following manner :—

Suppose drops of rain to fall rapidly and quickly after each other from a cloud under which a person is moving with a narrow tube, it is evident that this tube must have a certain inclination, in order that the drop which enters at the top may fall freely through the tube without touching the sides.

This inclination will be in the direction of the motion of the tube, and will be greater or less according to the velocity of the drops in respect to that of the tube, the angle made by the direction of the tube, and of the falling drops being the "aberration" of the rain.

Our readers will have no difficulty in applying this to the continual flow of light from a heavenly body to the earth, ever in motion, in a nearly circular path in the plane of its orbit. This plane is our field, and the narrow tube the telescope of the astronomer.

From a series of observations made by M. Struve, the Russian astronomer,

the angle caused by the aberration, or, as it is named, the "constant of aberration," has been determined to be 20'445 sec. Taking, therefore, a star situated in the pole of the ecliptic, the star will always appear at a distance of 20'445 sec. from its true place, and will describe a small circle about the pole. In all other situations, out of the ecliptic, the star's apparent path will be elliptical, the major axis being 40'8 sec., and the minor axis varying as the sine of the latitude.

This beautiful discovery has supplied astronomers with another means of measuring the velocity of light, and by it the earth's orbital motion is fully proved.

Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn are now morning stars, and are gradually emerging from the sun, with which body they have recently been in conjunction. We refrain from giving tables this month of the eclipses, transits, and occultations of Jupiter's satellites, as we imagine few of our readers will care to use them when the observation must be made some hours from the meridian, and somewhere about 4 or 5 a.m., when the telescope's action upon the satellites may be expected to be somewhat as Sir John Herschel describes it on double stars :—

" The approach of the sun to the eastern horizon is marked long before the commencement of twilight by an unsteadiness of the stars. As the morning twilight comes on they begin to dance, and their discs appear to burst and fly to pieces like drops of quicksilver let fall on a table, especially in eastern azimuth. In the west, at the same altitude, their movements are less sudden, and they mould themselves into shapes with rounded angles, like large drops of mercury agitated but not broken ; the effect is similar to what might be supposed to take place in vision under still water, into which a stone has been dashed far to the eastward, when only a softened and gentle undulation has had time to propagate itself to the west."

The planet Mercury is in Aphelion on the 2nd, at 20h. 42 min. ; Venus is similarly situated at 5h. 45 min. on the 19th ; Jupiter is in conjunction with Saturn at 4h. 32 min. on the 25th ; the rings of the latter are now rapidly closing, preparatory to their total disappearance next month.

CORRESPONDENCE.

"TRACTS FOR PRIESTS AND PEOPLE."

To the Editor of "The London Review."

SIR,—Your number for September 7th contains an article headed "Tracts for Priests and People," in which grave charges, professedly affecting my "decency and honesty as a clergyman of the Church of England," are brought against my essay on the miracles in that series. In asking you to admit a reply to such accusations, it cannot be supposed that I am merely begging a favour not usually granted to authors who may be smarting under adverse criticism.

In the tract on "The Signs of the Kingdom of Heaven," I thought it worth while to point out that in the New Testament narratives the wonderful works of Christ and of His Apostles are not spoken of in such a way as to compel the reader to draw a strict logical distinction between what is *natural* and what is *supernatural*. I may use your own words to explain my meaning. You ask,—"Did he (Mr. Davies) expect the writers of the Gospel to go up into a logical chair, and divide historical events into genus and species?" What you think it would have been ludicrously absurd for the writers of the Gospel to do, I contended that believers in the Gospel were not required by the Gospel Scriptures to do. Whether philosophy required us to take a course so opposed, in your view, to the method of the Gospel writers, as to draw up a logical system of categories, and in words say, "this is *natural*, and that not," was, I urged, an open question, which we were quite free, as reverent readers of the Scriptures, to consider. I expressed a strong doubt whether the philosophical meaning of these terms, *natural* and *supernatural*, was sufficiently distinct and recognized, to warrant divines in imposing any article involving those terms upon the faith of every Christian. For example, the present work of the Creator in sustaining the world—is that natural or supernatural? It would depend on the answer to that question, whether I should call the acts of the Saviour recorded in the New Testament natural or supernatural.

But upon this statement you make the following comments :—

"We must remind him that it is a very grave matter for the minister of a parish to step forward to speak on such subjects without adequate qualification, and to use words which would warrant the inference that he does not credit a single fact recorded in the Bible. For a clergyman to volunteer to teach infidelity, whether consciously or unconsciously, is an event full of sorrow and of danger." "The world had a clear right to expect of him a simple and emphatic declaration whether he did believe in the existence of one distinct and positive miracle in the Bible." "Would Mr. Davies think it equally rational, equally possible, to address words to Socrates, to Seneca, to Mahomet, or any other of the departed" [as to Christ]?

I reply by quoting a sentence from the first paragraph of my tract : "In the following pages, treating of the great signs of the Gospel, the reader will certainly find no attack upon miracles, for I desire to justify to the utmost the narratives of the New Testament, as historical and authentic, against the doubts which have been cast upon them." On page 8, I speak of the Resurrection of Christ in plain historical terms. I say of the disciples, that after the descent of the Holy Ghost, "they knew their Master to be the *Lord of Life*, and they therefore regarded His triumph over death as a most natural and necessary event" (p. 9). I speak of the miracles as "tokens of *His* glory, who was the Light and Life and Saviour of mankind" (p. 22). I say that through them the disciples "were to be brought to know Him as the Son of the Father, as the Word of the Eternal Maker manifest in flesh" (p. 27). To quote one more sentence, I say : "If we believe in a Living God, no acts, however marvellous, which are in *harmony* with His nature and will, can seem to us incredible." The whole tenor of the tract agrees with these quotations. Nowhere is any suspicion thrown, directly or indirectly, upon a single fact recorded in the Bible as being other than true. Throughout, the Scriptural narratives are defended as true ; and the Risen Christ is assumed to be the Lord of the world and of mankind. So far as it finds a place in a tract on such a subject as miracles, the theology is that of the Creeds and the Prayer-book.

If it be asked, Why then should any exception be taken to the current phrases which represent the miracles as suspensions of the order of nature? I answer, Because that definition, which has no Scriptural authority, is proving itself to be, philosophically, a source of confusion and occasion of unbelief. It is no peculiarity of mine, however, to disown this language. The following passage from Archbishop Whately is equally a protest against it [the italics are his]:—

"I have said that the works performed by Jesus and his disciples were beyond the unassisted powers of man. And this, I think, is the best description of what is meant by a miracle. *Superhuman* would perhaps be a better word to apply to a miracle than *supernatural*, for if we believe that 'nature' is merely another word to signify that state of things and course of events which God has appointed, nothing that occurs can strictly be called 'supernatural.' Jesus himself accordingly describes his works, not as violations of the laws of nature, but as 'works which *none other man did*.' But what is in general meant by 'supernatural' is something out of the *ordinary* course of nature; something at variance with those laws of nature which we have been *accustomed to*."—*Christian Evidences—Miracles*, Part I., § 2.

Similarly, Bishop Butler, discussing the presumption against miracles, puts them philosophically in the category of extraordinary occurrences:—

"Miracles must not be compared to common natural events; or to events which, though uncommon, are similar to what we daily experience; but to the extraordinary phenomena of nature. And then the comparison will be between the presumption against miracles, and the presumption against such uncommon appearances, suppose, as comets, and against there being any such powers in nature as magnetism and electricity, so contrary to the properties of other bodies not endowed with these powers."—*Analogy*, Part II., chap. 2, near the end.

Since the publication of my tract, a work has appeared by an American author, well known and highly esteemed, I believe, amongst Evangelical Christians, on "Nature and the Supernatural." According to the theory of this author, Dr. Bushnell, miracles are in the category of "supernatural" events: but so are the most ordinary acts of every man. All exertions of *will* are, in his system, supernatural; and the miracles are no more and no less suspensions of the order of nature than my writing of this letter. They differ from ordinary acts of volition in being, in fact, as Whately and Butler say, *extra-ordinary*; in being more wonderful and mighty than the works which, according to our experience, men can perform.

The definition of "supernatural" must depend, as I have said in my tract, on the definition of "nature." But in the mean time the acts of our Lord may be recognized as historically true and as divinely significant, without waiting till philosophers are agreed as to their definitions.—I am, your obedient servant,

J. LL. DAVIES.

Christ Church, St. Marylebone, September 19.

[We have thought it fair to Mr. Davies to print his reply to the article of which he complains. At the same time we must point out that there is in it an absence of that precision of language which ought never to be departed from in the discussion of such subjects. There is no doubt about the sense in which mankind in general use the word "miracle." The question raised by Mr. Davies's reviewer is, whether he accepts the works performed by our Saviour as "miracles" in the sense in which that word is commonly understood, or not? If he does so accept them, it is a pity, especially at such a time as the present, that he should permit himself to use terms so capable of misconstruction. If he does not so accept them, he cannot reasonably complain of the language used by the writer of the article on his tract.—ED. L. R.]

MILTON AND THE MOSAIC COSMOLOGY.

SIR.—Allow me to occupy a portion of your space with a few words by way of rejoinder to the second letter of "E. B." Your correspondent puts two questions, in answering which, to his own satisfaction at least, he extends the scope of the original inquiry, and asserts that to be a *positive* incongruity, which at first he treated as only *apparent*. The fact that the crowning work of creation—man—had not been accomplished when it is said in Genesis that God had not as yet caused rain to fall, but there went up a mist which watered the face of the ground, "proves nothing," according to "E. B.," who then, whilst eschewing all attempts to establish any system of comparative chronology between "Paradise Lost" and the Septuagint, nevertheless mentally assigns a "date" to the Hymn of Adam and Eve, and emphatically pronounces the dictum that when it was sung rain had not fallen upon the earth. This is riding his hobby with a vengeance, and where it will land him it is not difficult to say. Without meaning to be discourteous, it strikes me that not only has your correspondent perpetrated an anachronism in his first letter, but he has now blundered upon what logicians term a false or an imperfect syllogism. Thus the penultimate act of creation having been accomplished, and no rain having yet fallen, and the Bible preserving silence on the subject until the narrative of the flood, *ergo*, none had descended at a date posterior to the creation of our first parents, when the poet makes them hymn their Maker's praise. Surely such an argument is utterly fallacious and unsound.

Having, however, assigned a date to the hymn, your correspondent may perhaps with equal facility perform the same office with the fact mentioned in the verse to which he attaches such importance, and further inform us of the lapse of time between that and the creation of man, and how long Adam was left unsolaced by the companionship of Eve. The statement in the verse referred to is expressed in the past tense. Up to a certain period, then, the Lord "had not caused it to rain," and man did not exist to till the ground; but the universe having at length been completed, it became necessary that it should be prepared for the reception of the human family. So there went up a mist from the earth—a natural event occurring in due fulfilment of nature's laws—and returning (the text does not say or imply in the same form, or even as dew) it "watered the whole face of the ground." This portion of the Hebrew Scripture is so capable of a literal rendering into the Anglo-Saxon, that our own version does not require the gloss of translator or interpreter, but fully and adequately conveys the sense of the original.

The very passage quoted, therefore, favours the *assumption*—and nothing more is contended for—that when man was created, the machinery of nature having been in operation, not for five ordinary days of twenty-four hours only, but it may be for countless ages, mists rose and formed clouds as they

do to this day; that they must have descended as rain to water the ground; that the mere silence of the Bible, except in the instance alluded to, does not prove the reverse; and that Milton, in permitting his Adam and Eve to address the mist, "as wetting the thirsty earth with falling showers," is not amenable to the charge of distorting or contradicting the cosmogony of Moses.

Sept. 16, 1861.

A LOVER OF MILTON.

INTERNATIONAL EXHIBITION, 1862.

SIR.—My attention having been called to an article in your journal of the 21st inst., in which you state that for the right of photographing the Exhibition building, a foreign house, Messrs. Bernstingl & Co., did not make an offer of any definite sum, but to double the highest tender made by any other firm, and that on those terms the right in question was accorded to them, I have to request that you will be good enough to contradict this statement, as being wholly at variance with the fact. The tenders were made in the regular way; and that of Messrs. Bernstingl, being the highest, was accepted by Her Majesty's Commissioners as a matter of course.—I have the honour to be, Sir, your obedient servant,

Offices, 454, West Strand, London, W.C.,
23rd September, 1861.

F. R. SANDFORD.

THE PERIODIC RECURRENCE OF METEORS.

SIR.—At the period abovenamed in August last, simultaneous observations were made by observers in different parts of the kingdom for the purpose of identifying these bodies, and thence ascertaining parallax and other interesting particulars. Not having heard with what success it was attended, may I ask whether the results will be published, or only intended for the private use of the astronomical society; and if the latter, whether those who co-operated will be privileged; and whether similar arrangements are contemplated for the November season?—I am, Sir, yours obediently,

Weston-super-mare, September 25, 1861.

W. H. W.

NECROLOGY.

SIR S. H. STIRLING, BART.

On Thursday, the 19th inst., at Twickenham, Middlesex, aged 30, Sir Samuel Home Stirling, Bart., of Glorat. The deceased baronet was the eldest son of the late Captain George Stirling, of the 9th regiment of Foot (who was the second son of the sixth baronet), by his first wife, the only daughter of William Grey, Esq., of Ongton, and was born in 1830. He succeeded to the title on the death of his cousin, the late Sir Samuel Stirling, Bart., of Glorat, in May, 1858, and was appointed, in 1860, to a captain's commission in the Linlithgow Militia Artillery. He married, in 1854, Mary Harriet Thornton, youngest daughter of Colonel Thomas Stirling Begbie, late of the 44th Foot, but we are not aware whether he has left issue. In event of such being not the case, the title passes to his next brother, Mr. Charles Elphinstone Fleming Stirling, who would thus become ninth Baronet of Glorat. This family are descended from Sir John Stirling, of Glorat, who was armour-bearer to King James I. of Scotland, and was knighted in 1430 by his sovereign. They represent maternally the Earls of Bothwell and Dunbar (both extinct) and the Humes of Renton.

SIR G. DASHWOOD, BART.

On Sunday, the 22nd instant, at Kirtlington Park, Oxfordshire, aged 75, Sir George Dashwood, Bart., of that place. He was the eldest son of the late Sir Henry Watkin Dashwood, third baronet, by Mary Helen, daughter of John Graham, Esq., of Newnham, and was born at his father's seat, in 1786. He entered the army at an early age, and was for some time Lieutenant in the 3rd Foot-guards. He was appointed, in due course, a Magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Oxfordshire, and served as High Sheriff of that county in 1830. Sir George, who enjoyed the reputation of an excellent neighbour and landlord, and held the patronage of one living, married, in 1815, Marianne, daughter of the late Sir William Rowley, Bart., by whom he has left issue, three sons and three daughters. He is succeeded in the title and estates by his eldest son, Henry William, who was born in 1816, and married, in 1845, Sophia, only daughter of John Drinkwater, Esq., of Sherborne House, co. Warwick, by whom he has issue. The present baronet is a Magistrate and Deputy-Lieutenant for Oxfordshire. The first baronet of this line was the son of an alderman of London, in the reign of Charles II., who took an active part in farming the revenues of Ireland.

COLONEL CROFTON.

On Monday, the 16th inst., at the Barracks, Preston, murdered by a private soldier of his regiment, aged 47, Colonel Hugh Dennis Crofton. He was the eldest son of Sir Morgan George Crofton, Bart., of Mohill House, co. Leitrim, Ireland; his mother was a sister of Lord Dunsandie. He was born in Dublin in 1814, and entered the army in 1835. He married, in 1849, Georgiana Lucy, eldest daughter of the late Hon. Peter Blaquier, by whom he leaves a family of three children, the eldest only in his eighth year. Colonel Crofton had been in the army for twenty-six years, and during the whole of the time, except three years, in active employ. He served in the Crimea, commanded the 20th regiment at the Alma, and had a horse shot under him at Inkermann, where he was also severely wounded. For his conduct on the occasion he was honourably mentioned in the despatches of the Commander-in-Chief, and decorated with French and Turkish orders.

CAPTAIN HANHAM.

On Monday, the 16th instant, killed by a private soldier, at Preston Barracks, aged 36, Captain John Hanham. He was a third son of the late Rev. Sir James Hanham, Bart., of Dean's Court, near Wimborne, Dorset (who died in 1849), and brother and heir-presumptive to the present baronet, Sir William Hanham. He entered the army in 1843, and received the appointment of Adjutant of the 11th dépôt Battalion in 1856. Captain

Hanham had seen much service, especially in India. He took part in the Sutlej campaign of 1845-6, and was wounded at Moodkee, and he was also present at Ferozebah and Sobraon. For these services he had received a medal and clasps. He was married, and has left a family of four children. The family of Hanham were settled in Gloucestershire, not far from Bristol, as early as the reign of Edward III.

GENERAL HERBERT.

On Thursday, the 19th instant, at Exeter, aged 85, General Dennis Herbert, one of the senior generals in the army. The deceased officer entered the army nearly sixty-seven years ago, and served on the Continent with the army under Lord Moira and the Duke of York. He was engaged during the Carib war in St. Vincent's; at Port au Prince, in St. Domingo; and at Fort Irois during the three months' siege. He also served at the siege of Copenhagen in 1807. His commissions bore date:—Ensign, January, 1794; lieutenant, September 4, 1794; captain, February 21, 1799; major, January 30, 1800; lieutenant-colonel, January 28, 1808; colonel, June 4, 1814; major-general, May 27, 1825; lieutenant-general, June 28, 1838; and full general, June 20, 1854.

LADY BAKER.

On Thursday, the 12th inst., at Dunstable House, Richmond, Surrey, aged 60, the Lady Baker. She was Anne, only daughter of William Williams, Esq., sometime M.P. for Weymouth (a gentleman of an old Dorsetshire family), by Anna, sister of Sir J. Colman Rashleigh, Bart., and was born in 1801. In June, 1820, she married Vice-Admiral Sir Henry Lorraine Baker, Bart., C.B., who succeeded his father as second baronet in 1826, and died about a year ago, leaving issue five daughters and two sons, of whom the elder is the present Rev. Sir Henry Williams Baker, Bart. The baronetcy was originally conferred in 1796 on Robert Baker, Esq., of Upper Dunstable House, Richmond, and of Nicholshayne, Devon, youngest son of John Baker, Esq., M.D., by Sarah, daughter and coheiress of Thomas Wood, Esq., of Littleton.

HON. MRS. DASHWOOD.

On Sunday, the 15th inst., at Florence, aged 76, the Hon. Mrs. Dashwood. The deceased lady was the Hon. Georgiana Anne Anderson-Pelham, fifth and youngest daughter of the first Lord Yarborough, by Sophia, only daughter and heiress of George Aufre, Esq., of Chelsea, and sister of the second Lord Yarborough, who was raised to the earldom in 1837, and was father of the present earl. She was born in July, 1784, and married, in August, 1811, Francis John Bateman-Dashwood, Esq., of Well Vale, Lincolnshire, but was left a widow in August, 1834.

MRS. THOMPSON.

On Saturday, the 7th inst., at Norwood, Mrs. Alderman Thompson. She was Amelia, second daughter of the late Samuel Homfray, Esq. (High Sheriff of Monmouthshire in 1813, sometime M.P. for Stafford), and niece of the late Sir Charles Gould-Morgan, Bart., and cousin of Lord Tredegar. She married, in 1817, Alderman William Thompson, of Underly Hall, county Westmoreland, and formerly of Perrydaron, county Glamorgan, who sat in Parliament uninterruptedly as M.P. in the Conservative interest for Sunderland, and afterwards for the county of Westmoreland, from 1826 down to his death in 1854. By him Mrs. Thompson had an only child and heir, who married in 1842 the Earl of Bective, M.P., eldest son of the Marquis of Headfort.

MRS. BURTON.

On Thursday, the 19th inst., at Cliburn Rectory, of consumption, Mrs. C. W. Burton. She was Sophia Portia, second daughter of the late Sir Wm. Pilkington, Bart., of Chevet Park, near Wakefield, Yorkshire, by Mary, second daughter and coheiress of the late Thomas Swinnerton, Esq., of Butterton Hall, Staffordshire, and sister of the present baronet, and of his two elder brothers, the ninth and tenth baronets, deceased. She married, in 1858, the Rev. Clarke Watkins Burton, M.A., of Clare College, Cambridge, late Curate of Dalston, now Rector of Cliburn, co. Westmoreland, who survives to lament her early loss.

MRS. PEEL.

On Wednesday, the 11th inst., at St. Leonard's-on-Sea, after a long illness, Mrs. Peel. She was Augusta, daughter of the late John Swynfen, Esq., of Swynfen, co. Stafford, and married in 1824 the Very Rev. John Peel, Dean of Worcester (a younger brother of the late Right Hon. Sir Robert Peel, Bart., M.P.), by whom she has left issue. Her only daughter, Julia Emily Augusta, married in July, 1846, Anthony, present Lord Henley, M.P.

ADDENDUM TO THE OBITUARY NOTICE OF COL. SIR G. R. BARKER, K.C.B., IN OUR LAST NUMBER.—This deceased officer, so suddenly cut off in the prime of life, early distinguished himself in the Eastern campaign of 1854, and attracted the especial notice of Sir Colin Campbell, by whom he was taken by the hand, and advanced to positions where his talent and skill found an ample field for extension. He successively commanded the Royal Artillery in the expedition to Kertch, and also in the left attack on the fall of Sebastopol. In India, during the late mutiny, he again met his old General, Lord Clyde, and under him, as a Brigadier-General, he commanded the siege artillery at the siege and capture of Lucknow. He likewise defeated the rebels in force at Jamo, and captured the fortress of Birwa, for which distinguished services he was made a Knight Commander of the Bath. A writer in the *Army and Native Gazette* observes with reference to Sir G. R. Barker,—“We may venture to say that the prospects of few officers in the service were more brilliant, or more appreciated by the country at the moment of his lamented death, than those of the subject of our brief memoir, whose loss has cast a gloom over the head-quarters of the regiment, with which all who personally knew the peculiar courtesy and urbanity which characterized him will sincerely sympathize.”

WILLS AND BEQUESTS.

Robert Poppleton Keighley, Esq., formerly of the borough of Kingston-upon-Hull, but late of Lee, Kent, died on the 18th of August last, having executed his will on the 26th day of the month preceding, appointing as his executors, Samuel Turner Prior, Esq., together with his son, Keighley Robert Keighley (a minor), and nephew, James Henry Keighley, Esq. Probate was granted by the London Court on the 21st instant, to the first-named executor; the personality being sworn under £25,000. This is the will of a respectable private gentleman who died possessed of a handsome competency, consisting of both realty and personality. The testator has bequeathed to his relict an immediate legacy of £300, and an annuity of £300; to whom he has also left the carriages, horses, furniture, and other effects, absolutely. Mr. Keighley directs his real estate to be sold, and the proceeds to be added to the personality; and, after securing the annuity of £300 to the relict, the whole of the remaining property is to be divided equally, share and share alike, amongst the testator's four children.

Algernon Attwood, Esq., formerly of Dartford, Kent, and of Grace-church-street, London, but late of Emmore, Torquay, Devon, where he died on the 11th ultimo, executed his will on the 7th July last, which was proved in the principal registry on the 7th instant by his relict, the sole executrix. This gentleman was the son of the late Thomas Attwood, Esq., M.P. for Birmingham, who distinguished himself upon all questions of finance, but more particularly on the question of the currency, which, upwards of twenty years since, engaged so much public attention. Mr. Attwood, the member for Birmingham, was so fully conversant with the intricacies and various difficulties of the complicated currency question as to be considered a most efficient authority by all members of the House of Commons touching this important question. The testator has died possessed of real and personal property, which he has left entirely to his relict for her sole use and disposition. He has also nominated the following gentlemen, together with his relict, guardians to his children,—the testator's brother, Marcus Attwood, Esq., of Rouen, France, his uncle, Benjamin Attwood, Esq., New Bridge-street, London, and Henry Wilkie, Esq., of Spring-gardens. The testator died at a somewhat early age, namely 48.

Miss Catherine Graham, formerly of Netherby, near Carlisle, Cumberland, but principally residing at the island of Malta, died at Jersey on the 22nd of August last, having executed her will in 1856, appointing two executors—one for her property in Malta, namely, Miss Harriet Lindsay, and the other for administration in England. Probate was accordingly granted in the London Court to her brother, Major George Graham, general executor, except as to her property in Malta. This lady is the sister of the Right Hon. Sir James Graham, a name familiar to the public, and very deservedly highly respected by all classes. The testatrix has bequeathed a portion of her property amongst her brothers and sisters, appointing her brother, Major Graham, residuary legatee—this disposition has reference only to the testatrix's property in England. Miss Graham has bequeathed to Miss Harriet Lindsay a legacy of £500, and further confirms an assignment of all her property in Malta, which she made in favour of this lady, stating in her will that she makes this settlement upon Miss Lindsay “In token of the well-merited esteem and friendship in which she has been regarded by myself and deceased sisters for many years.” The testatrix also appoints Miss H. Lindsay universal legatee of all property she possessed in Malta.

Major Edward Becher Marsack, of H.M.'s 13th Regiment of Madras Native Infantry, died at Ryde, in the Isle of Wight, on the 22nd of August last, having executed his will on the 14th of January, 1860, which was attested by Lieutenant W. M. Williams, and James Macdonald, Esq., assistant-surgeon, both of the 13th Regiment. Major Marsack not having appointed any executor, letters of administration, with the will annexed, were granted to the relict by the London Court, on the 14th instant, and she is the only person deriving any benefit from the major's estate. Major Marsack served in the Indian army, and the greater part of his service was necessarily confined to the glowing climate of the East. Some few years since service, both military and civil, on this burning soil led to wealth, but latterly honour and distinction only have fallen to the lot of the military officer.

Edward Billopp Lawrence, Esq., F.R.G.S., of Baker-street, Portman-square, died on the 20th of last month, having made his will on the 5th of the same month. Probate was granted by the London Court on the 9th instant to the executors therein appointed, viz., Sir Willoughby Jones, Bart., William Franks, Esq., and Effingham John Lawrence, Esq. The personal property was sworn under £18,000. This is the will of a very respectable private gentleman, of a Welsh family, but he appears to have principally resided in London, and to have devoted himself to some branches of science, being a member of one of our learned societies. The testator has died possessed of realty, situate in his native country, Wales, which, together with the personality, he has bequeathed, with the exception of one or two legacies, entirely amongst the different members of his family. To his nephew, Effingham John Lawrence, the testator has devised an estate in Cardiganshire, absolutely, and all other his estates in Wales he has devised to him for life, and on his decease they are to devolve to his issue. To his other nephews very liberal pecuniary legacies are bequeathed. To one of his nephews, Edward Effingham Lawrence, a legacy of £7,000, together with a chest of plate (which the testator observes “is complete and filled”) is bequeathed. This latter gentleman also takes the greater portion of the furniture. To his niece, Mrs. William Franks, some pictures and other articles are bequeathed, and she is also nominated a residuary legatee, taking a third of the residue; the remaining two-thirds are left between his nephews, the Rev. Herbert Walsingham Jones, and Sir Willoughby Jones, Bart. To each of his executors a legacy of £100 is given, and there is also a legacy of £100 bestowed on the Hospital for Sick Children.

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Persons sending Newspapers abroad should be
aware that an adhesive stamp must be placed on all
Newspapers going out of the British Islands to the
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such adhesive stamps varies; the precise number
required in each case is stated in the Postal Guides
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As to the impressed red stamp on Newspapers, it is
only available for circulation in Great Britain, Ireland,
and the Channel Islands.

NOTICE.

All Communications on Editorial business must,
without exception, be addressed to THE EDITOR, and
not to any gentleman by name, connected, or supposed
to be connected, with THE LONDON REVIEW.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

CRYSTAL PALACE.—BLONDIN'S LAST
ASCENT BUT THREE. MONDAY NEXT, Sept. 30,
at Four o'clock. The Band of the Coldstream Guards will be
in Attendance. Admission, One Shilling; Children, half-price;
Reserved Seats, 2s. 6d. and 5s. extra.

CRYSTAL PALACE.—BLONDIN,
ON MONDAY NEXT will (by Special Desire), repeat
the MOST EXTRAORDINARY and DARING FEATS ever
attempted. Taking a common four-legged chair on to the
high rope, 160 feet from the ground, he sits, stands, and
lounges on its seat or back, shifting the chair in every direction
upon the rope, and balancing it on one or two legs. Other
marvellous feats will precede and follow this performance.
One Shilling.

NEW THEATRE ROYAL, ADELPHI.—
Sole Proprietor and Manager, Mr. B. WEBSTER.
Return of Mr. and Mrs. DION BOUCICAULT. 238th, 239th,
240th, 241st, 242nd, and 243rd nights of THE COLLEEN
BAWN.—On Monday, Sept. 23, the Theatre having been
entirely repainted and redecorated, was opened for the
Season, on which occasion Mr. and Mrs. Dion Boucicault
appeared in their celebrated characters in THE COLLEEN
BAWN.—On Monday, Sept. 30th, and during the week, the
Petite Comedy of MUSIC HATH CHARMED, Messrs. David
Fisher, Romer, Warde, Misses K. Kelly and Laidlaw; after
which (commencing at 3 to 8), the great sensation Drama of
THE COLLEEN BAWN, Mrs. Dion Boucicault, Miss Woolgar,
Mrs. Billington, Mrs. H. Lewis (her first appearance at this
Theatre), Mr. Dion Boucicault, Mr. Billington, Mr. S. Emery
(his first appearance these five years), Mr. David Fisher, Mr.
C. J. Smith, Mr. Stephenson, Mr. Romer; to conclude with
Morton's Farce of LOVE AND HUNGER, Mr. S. Emery,
Mr. D. Fisher, Mr. C. J. Smith, Mr. Romer, Mrs. H. Marston
(her first appearance at this Theatre), Misses K. Kelly and
Laidlaw. Doors open at half-past Six, commence at Seven.
Box Office open from 10 till 5. No charge for booking. In
rehearsal a new and original Drama (by the author of "The
Colleen Bawn") entitled, THE OCTOORON; OR, A LIFE
IN LOUISIANA.

THEATRE ROYAL, HAYMARKET.—
Mr. EDWIN BOOTH, from the Principal American
Theatres, will make his first appearance in England, on
Monday, Sept. 30, and on Wednesday and Friday, in the
character of Shylock, in the MERCHANT OF VENICE.
After which BOX AND COX; Box, Mr. Buckstone; Cox,
Mr. Compton. Concluding with TURNING THE TABLES.
On Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, Mr. and Mrs. Charles
Mathews, in the new Comedy, THE SOFT SEX. After which
a Farce, Mr. C. Mathews; and other entertainments. A new
Farce on Thursday and Saturday, by Mr. Charles Mathews.

GOVERNMENT SCHOOL OF MINES,
JERMYN-STREET, LONDON.

Director,

SIR RODERICK I. MURCHISON, D.C.L., &c.

The Prospectus for the Session, commencing on the 7th
October next, will be sent on application to the Registrar. The
Courses of Instruction embrace Chemistry, by Dr. Hofmann;
Physics, by Prof. Tyndall; Natural History, by Prof. Huxley;
Geology, by Prof. Ramsay; Mineralogy and Mining, by Mr.
Warington Smyth; Metallurgy, by Dr. Percy; and Applied
Mechanics, by Prof. Willis.

TRENTHAM REEKS, Registrar.

MINERALOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE,
LONDON.—Professor TENNANT, F.G.S., will commence a COURSE OF LECTURES ON MINERALOGY, with a view to facilitate the study of GEOLOGY and of the application of mineral substances in the ARTS. The Lectures will begin on Friday Morning, October 4th, at Nine o'clock. They will be continued on each succeeding Wednesday and Friday, at the same hour.—Fee £2.2s.

R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

ST. MARY'S HOSPITAL MEDICAL
SCHOOL.—The WINTER SESSION will commence on
TUESDAY, OCTOBER 1, at Eight o'clock p.m., with an
Introductory Address by Mr. Spencer Smith.

The Medical Appointments in this Hospital are annually
conferred upon Pupils without additional fee. The advantages
of FIVE of these appointments far exceed as many Scholarships of Fifty Pounds each.

Physicians—Dr. Alderson, Dr. Chambers, Dr. Sibson, Dr.
Handfield Jones, Dr. Sieveking, and Dr. Markham.

Surgeons—Mr. Coulson, Mr. Lane, Mr. Ure, Mr. Spencer
Smith, Mr. Walton, and Mr. James Lane.

Physician-Accoucheur—Dr. Tyler Smith.

Ophthalmic Surgeon—Mr. White Cooper.

Aural Surgeon—Mr. Toynbee. Surgeon-Dentist—Mr. Sercombe.

LECTURERS.

Clinical Medicine—Dr. Alderson, Dr. Chambers, Dr. Sibson.

Clinical Surgery—Mr. Coulson, Mr. Lane, Mr. Ure.

Medicine—Dr. Chambers and Dr. Sibson.

Surgery—Mr. Lane and Mr. Spencer Smith.

Physiology—Mr. James Lane and Dr. Broadbent.

Anatomy—Mr. James Lane and Mr. Gascoyne.

Operations on the dead body—Mr. Walton.

Dissections—Mr. Gascoyne and Mr. Norton.

Chemistry and Practical Chemistry—Mr. Field.

Midwifery—Dr. Tyler Smith, and Dr. Graily Hewitt.

Materia Medica—Dr. Sieveking.

Botany—Dr. Dresser.

Medical Jurisprudence—Dr. Sanderson.

Ophthalmic Surgery—Mr. White Cooper.

Aural Surgery—Mr. Toynbee. Dental Surgery—Mr. Sercombe.

Comparative Anatomy—Dr. Broadbent.

Natural Philosophy—Mr. Smalley.

PRIZES, &c.—The Medical appointments in the Hospital.

A Scholarship in Anatomy of the annual value of £25. A
Prize of £20 for Students of the first year. Prizes in the
several Classes at the end of each Session.

The Fee for the Hospital Practice and Lectures required by
the Royal Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons, and the
Society of Apothecaries, is £89. 5s., payable by instalments.

A detailed Prospectus will be sent, and further information
obtained, on application to

GEO. G. GASCOYEN, Dean of the School.

St. Mary's Hospital, August, 1861.

GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY.—
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To Isle of Man and back	70	0	50

Passengers wishing to stay longer than one calendar month at Scarborough, Whitby, Redcar, Filey, Bridlington, Withernsea, or Harrogate, can do so on payment of a small additional per-cent.

For further particulars, see Programmes, to be obtained at King's-cross Station, and all the Receiving Offices in London, and at the Stations in the Country.

SEYMOUR CLARKE, General Manager.

London, King's-cross Station, June 24th, 1861.

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SOUTH-WESTERN RAILWAY, from Waterloo-bridge
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Income from fire premiums in 1860 £70,656 18 0

Every description of risks insured at tariff rates.

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Loans granted. Good bonuses. Moderate premiums.

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ESTABLISHED 1838.

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POSITION, INCOME, AND PROGRESS OF THE COMPANY.

The accumulated assets exceed £650,000

The subscribed capital 500,000

The annual income from life premiums exceeds 250,000

The policy claims and bonuses paid to claimants about 1,000,000

The new business is progressing at the rate of about £30,000
per annum.

The Company transacts the following description of business:

—Life Assurance on Healthy and Diseased Lives, Annuities
and Endowments of all kinds, India Risk Assurances, and
Guarantee business; and confers upon Insurers great facilities
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Special and peculiar features have been adopted, in order to
render the Company's Policies additionally valuable as securities,
and to offer to the insured means whereby their Policies
may be saved from forfeiture.

Prospectuses, forms of proposal for Assurances, and every
information, may be obtained on application to any of the
Society's Agents; or to the Secretary, at 7, Waterloo-place,
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efficiently represented may be addressed.

C. DOUGLAS SINGER, Secretary.

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Head Offices: 29, Lombard-street, London; and
Royal Insurance-buildings, Liverpool.

Branch Offices: Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds,
Dublin, Glasgow, and Edinburgh.

EXTRACTS FROM THE REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1860.

"The success of the Company, even in its earliest years,
received the marked attention, and elicited the surprised comments
of writers best acquainted with the history of Insurance
Companies.

"Fire Premiums for 1860 equal the Total Fire Premiums for
the Seven Years 1845 to 1851.

"Life Premiums for 1860 exceed the Entire Life Premiums
for the Eight Years ending 1852.

"Purchase of Annuities in 1860 largely exceeds the similar
receipts for the first Ten Years, 1845 to 1854.

"This progress, it is believed, is unsurpassed, considering
that it applies to each of the three branches of the business.

FIRE BRANCH.

"The Fire Branch has certainly shown no exhaustion during
the year 1860 of that impetus which had previously brought it
to a position of the first magnitude among the Insurance Companies
of the United Kingdom. The Fire Premiums in 1859 had
advanced to the sum of £228,314. 7s. 3d. In 1860, the amount of
Fire Premiums has arrived at a sum of £262,977. 19s. 11d.,
showing an increase of £34,663. 12s. 8d., exceeding the large
advance of the preceding year, so that in two years the Fire
Revenue of the Company has been enhanced by the enormous
sum of £66,829. 17s. 5d.

"The Parliamentary Report of Returns of Duty paid to
Government for the year 1860 exhibits the augmentation of the
business in a more prominent way, as it affords the means of
comparison with other Companies. The Proprietors will be
gratified to learn that the increase of Duty paid by the Royal
in the last year is more than double that of any other Company,
either London or Provincial, whilst only one of those Companies
even approaches to 50 per cent. of the advance of this Company.
Our increase actually equals 30 per cent. of the entire
increase of the whole of the Metropolitan Offices combined,
whilst of the Provincial Offices it forms upwards of 30
per cent. of the total advance of the other 28 offices established
out of London.

LIFE BRANCH.

"The Reports of the Company for several years have had
invariably to announce a constant periodical expansion of Life
Business, the new Policies of each succeeding year showing an
advance over the one that had immediately preceded it. A
similar result is shown in the year 1860, the Premiums on New
Policies, after deducting Guarantees, being £15,079. 17s. 10d.,
which is an increase in that item of £1,993. 17s. 5d. above the
amount received for

[Sept. 28, 1861.]

ACCIDENTS OF ALL KINDS, AND
FROM ANY CAUSE, may be provided against by an
Annual payment of £3 to the RAILWAY PASSENGERS
ASSURANCE COMPANY, which secures £1,000 at death
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NO EXTRA PREMIUM FOR VOLUNTEERS.

One person in every Twelve insured is injured yearly by
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For further information apply to the Provincial Agents,
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Annual Income £4,000.

CAPITAL ONE MILLION.

WILLIAM J. VIAN, Secretary.

4, Cornhill, E.C., January, 1861.

WATERLOO LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY.

THIS COMPANY OFFERS THE SECURITY
of a Capital of £400,000 and the advantages of moderate
rates. The last Bonus was in 1859, the next will be in 1864.
Claims within the days of Grace paid by this Company.

NO EXTRA PREMIUM FOR VOLUNTEERS.

This Company's Policies insure against ACCIDENT or
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Sums of money may be deposited at interest, for fixed
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The Hon. FRANCIS SCOTT, Chairman.

CHARLES BEEWICK CURTIS, Esq., Deputy-Chairman.

Fourth Division of Profits.

SPECIAL NOTICE.—Parties desirous of participating in the
fourth division of profits to be declared on policies effected
prior to the 31st of December, 1861, should make immediate
application. There have already been three divisions of profits,
and the bonuses divided have averaged nearly 2 per cent. per
annum on the sums assured, or from 30 to 100 per cent. on
the premiums paid, without the risk of co-partnership.

To show more clearly what these bonuses amount to, the
three following cases are given as examples:—

Sum Insured.	Bonuses added.	Amount payable up to Dec. 1854.
£5,000	£1,987 10	£6,987 10
1,000	397 10	1,397 10
100	39 15	139 15

Notwithstanding these large additions, the premiums are on
the lowest scale compatible with security; in addition to which
advantages one half of the premiums may, if desired, for the
term of five years, remain unpaid at 5 per cent. interest,
without security or deposit of the policy.

The assets of the Company at the 31st December, 1859,
amounted to £890,140. 19s., all of which had been invested in
Government and other approved securities.

No charge for Volunteer Military Corps while serving in the
United Kingdom.

Policy stamps paid by the office.

For prospectuses, &c., apply to the Resident Director, No. 8,
Waterloo-place, Pall-mall.

By order,
E. L. BOYD, Resident Director.

**THE MERCANTILE FIRE INSURANCE
COMPANY.**

Temporary Offices: 31, Threadneedle-street, E.C.

CAPITAL—TWO MILLIONS STERLING.

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George Young, Esq. (Messrs. Begbie, Young, & Co.)

With power to add to their number.

MANAGER.

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William Ferguson, Esq. (Messrs. Robert Benson & Co.)

Chas. Richard Harford, Jun., Esq. (Lloyd's.)

BANKERS.

Messrs. Glyn, Mills, & Co., Lombard-street.

SOLICITORS.

Messrs. Bircham, Dalrymple, & Drake, 46, Parliament-street, Westminster.

The Directors have pleasure in stating that they are now
prepared to entertain proposals for Insurance on all classes of
risks in the United Kingdom. The rates of Premium in all
cases will be as moderate as possible, and governed in each
case by a careful consideration of the risk proposed. The
Company, in arriving at the rate to be charged, will give the
Insurer the full benefit of any improvement that may be made
in the peculiar features of the risk, or in the construction and
arrangement of the premises.

The Company will ever distinguish itself in its promptitude
and liberality in the settlement of claims.

The importance of the subject of Insurance being now more
fully understood and appreciated, it becomes indispensably
necessary that every Company which undertakes to replace the
loss occasioned by Fire, should be enabled to show its un-
doubted ability to perform its engagements.

As ample evidence of the standing and position of the MER-
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EXTRACT FROM DIRECTORS' REPORT, MAY, 1861.

THE Directors are enabled, in rendering their Annual Account, to announce that the year 1860 exhibited a continuance of the same healthy advance on which they last year had to congratulate the Proprietors, and so far as can be foreseen, presents the elements of future prosperity.

Proposals for the Assurance of £254,033 were made to the Office during the past year, of which amount £167,259 were assured, producing, in New Premiums, £5,619. 0s. 8d. The Income of the Office on the 31st December last, had reached £46,562. 9s., being an increase over 1859 of £9,700.

The Accounts, having reference to the last three years, show that the Cash Assets have exceeded the liabilities in a gradually increasing ratio, thus:—

In 1858 the Excess was £8,269	7	4
1859	„	12,086 9 11
1860	„	18,557 0 6

It will be seen that the amount added to the Funds of the Company during the past year shows a surplus of a very satisfactory character, notwithstanding the payment of £14,184. 14s. 5d. for claims consequent on the Death of Members.

Since the Directors last had the pleasure of meeting the Proprietors, the Royal Assent has been given to a Special Act of Parliament, conferring additional powers on the Company.

As the close of the present year will bring us to the period prescribed for the Valuation of the Business, with a view to the declaration of a Bonus, the Directors very earnestly invite the co-operation of the Proprietors and all others connected with or interested in the Office to assist their efforts in making the present the most successful year of the Company's existence, in order that, individually and collectively, all interests may be advanced."

31 OC 61 HENRY D. DAVENPORT, Secretary.

SUPPLEMENT TO THE LONDON REVIEW.

No. 65.]

SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 28, 1861.

[VOL. III.

PENZANCE TO THE LAND'S-END.—WHAT ARE CROMLECHS AND STONE CIRCLES?

THE arrangements of cheap trains by the railway companies during the present season, have carried a good proportion of the crowd of summer and autumnal excursionists to the sea-side to Penzance and the far west, to places which had, in time back, not rejoiced in many visitors. A few years ago, to have visited the Land's-end was an event to be remembered in a man's life ; but now the road between Penzance and that celebrated headland is frequented daily by numbers of travellers in carriage, on horseback, and on foot, who are thus introduced to scenery and to objects with which they have not been familiar in other parts of the country. Perhaps many of them may be glad to hear what modern science has to say on the most striking of these objects—the numerous artificial arrangements of stones, single uprights, circles, chambers, &c., which have been usually called Druidical monuments.

It was in the beautiful weather which marked the latter part of the month of August that we proceeded to Penzance to visit an old friend who was passing the summer there. Penzance is an oddly built town, made up of bits and corners, and blind alleys, in the midst of which you can rarely find a short or direct way between one point and another. It is, nevertheless, not an unpleasant town, and it has a tolerably good beach, and is remarkable for the salubrity of its climate, and for the extreme fertility of the country immediately surrounding it, which supplies London with its earliest potatoes and other vegetable productions. This fertility arises, no doubt, partly from the richness of the soil, and chiefly from the mixture of mildness and moisture in its atmosphere. The drives and walks in the vicinity of the town are also agreeable ; and it was by a road under a pleasant avenue of trees, and crossing a pretty little trout-stream, that, on the day following that of our arrival, and after an early dinner with our friend, we left Penzance to walk over the hills to the LAND'S-END. We gradually mount the hill, and for a time we have on each side good hedges and fields. Under the hedge on the left, at the top of the hill, where there are branch roads, stands the granite stump of an ancient cross. These crosses, usually made of granite, are very common objects in Western Cornwall. We now descend the hill, cross a small stream at the bottom, pass along the hedge of another hill of as great elevation, and descend to another small stream, which we cross by the bridge of Buryas.

This is rather a pretty spot, but we are now quitting the richly-cultivated country, are leaving the trees behind us, and are entering upon a succession of wild downs, separated by hollows, which, where untouched, present a scrubby surface of furze bushes and ferns, and which must formerly have formed a very desolate scene. But even here, where a small depth of soil has been able to collect on the rock, it still partakes of the fertility of the plain, and much land has been cultivated, and divided into fields, with inclosures built of masses of the granite of the district instead of hedges. Even with these improvements, the prospect is desolate enough. Our way runs along the bottom of a hollow for some distance after leaving Buryas-bridge, till we pass over another hill at a place called Drift, and descend again to a small stream, at a spot where there is another separation of the road, and we take the turning to the right, along the side of which the stream runs for a short distance. We again mount a hill, and, as we approach its summit, a large mass of granite, some ten or twelve feet high above ground, placed in an upright position in the corner of a field to the right, strikes our attention, and tempts us to climb over the fence of stones mixed with rather luxuriant plants and bushes, which have taken root in the earth which has accumulated between their crevices. Here is a sketch of



The Tregonbris Stone.

the object which then presents itself to our view, taken from the opposite side to that which faces the road. It is an excellent example of that class of monuments which the Celtic archaeologists call a *mén-hir*, or stone pillar, but which in Cornwall is called simply a *mén*, or stone. It is known as the Tregonbris stone, from the name of the farm-house under the hill on the northern side of the field.

We return to our road and continue our journey. At a short distance beyond the object we have been examining they lead us down into another

hollow, or valley, across a stream at its bottom, and up another hill. When we gain the brow of this latter hill, let us turn off from our road along a lane to the left, which leads us first to a small hamlet or farm called Boscawen-ûn, and then, a little farther, ends in a large enclosed field, covered with abundance of furze and bracken, and not far from where we enter it we come almost unawares upon one of the most celebrated of the so-called "Druidical"



The Boscawen-ûn Circle—Northern part.

circles in Cornwall. When the inclosures were made, the farmer very stupidly ran one of the hedges—in this instance a real good bushy hedge—through the circle, so that now we can only see and examine it in detail. To judge from the destruction of such monuments which has taken place since the days of Borlase, we may be thankful that the circle itself escaped. We have been obliged to sketch the circle of Boscawen-ûn in its two parts. Our first view represents the stones standing on the north side of the hedge, in the field we entered by the road ; it is taken from the western side. It consists of seven stones, the farthest of which stands in the hedge. A little to the right of this view there is an opening in the hedge, and a gate leading into the field to the south, immediately within which the remainder of the circle presents itself, as shown in our second sketch. The whole circle consists (or consisted) of nineteen upright stones, the tallest of which is about four feet and a half high above the ground, and placed in the circumference of a circle, the



The Boscawen-ûn Circle—Southern part.

diameter of which is about twenty-five yards, with one taller stone in a leaning position in the centre. Another similar circle at Bolleit, in the parish of St. Burian, about four miles to the south-east of Boscawen-ûn, has the same number of stones, and is of about the same dimensions ; and several other such circles are still met with in the Land's-end district.

Many a reader will be inclined to put the question which continually presents itself to the modern excursionists to the Land's-end—What are those singular monuments, and what was their object ? and we will interrupt our journey for a moment to try and give a clear as well as a brief account of them. Borlase, the Cornish antiquary, and, indeed, most of the old antiquaries, called this class of remains indiscriminately Druidical, and had strange dreams of the purposes to which they served. The circles, they decided, were temples of the Druids ; when a cromlech—that is, a large flat stone placed upon three upright stones—occupied the centre of the circle (which is not unusually the case) they pronounced it to be the altar on which the Druids sacrificed human victims ; and when there was only an upright stone in the centre, as at Boscawen-ûn, it was the rude pillar to which the unwilling victim of Druidic religious ferocity was tied for the slaughter. Various other ingenious speculations were hazarded, all equally worthless ; and the modern system of careful and patient research, instead of hasty conjecture, has dispelled much mist, and thrown a considerable amount of light upon them. In the first place, it was a mere groundless assumption that any of these monuments had any connection whatever with the Druids. The first satisfactory discoveries were made in the cromlechs. We did not meet with a cromlech in our walk to the Land's-end, but there are one or two fine examples in the parish of Sennan, not very far from the western



promontory. In one or two instances, on the removal of large sepulchral mounds, a cromlech was found in the centre, containing the interment, the ashes or skeleton of the dead; and when, acting on this hint, excavations were made about the cromlechs which had long remained exposed, traces of burial have always been found. Since these first discoveries, many concealed cromlechs in different parts of the country, and especially in the Channel Islands, under the direction of Mr. Lukis, have been opened, and uniformly with the same results. More than this, on clearing away a large mound, there has been found, we believe we are right in saying not unfrequently, a circle of stones just within its limits, which appeared to be intended to define the extent of the mound and support the earth. It thus seemed quite clear that the cromlechs were not Druid's altars, but simple tombs, and that the circles were, for some purpose or other, made round the tombs. Even where there is only an upright stone in the middle, this is believed to be intended to mark the place of interment. This explanation of the cromlech and circle is the one now universally accepted by antiquaries. These tombs no doubt belonged to a very early period; but discoveries have been made which seem to show that these cromlech tombs continued in use, at least in some part of the island, down to the latter period of the Roman occupation.

It is not impossible that the circles may sometimes have been erected for other purposes, and we have a suggestion to offer which may perhaps have some ground in truth, and may at the same time show that "Druidical" circles may sometimes belong to a much more recent date, when Druids and their worship had been long forgotten. It is not improbable that one chief use of the circle of stones, as also of the ditch which sometimes surrounds an ancient sepulchral mound, whether it were within or without the earth or stones of the mound, was to mark and inclose the ground which was consecrated to the dead, and a similar contrivance might be employed to inclose any consecrated spot. In one of the Anglo-Saxon collections of ecclesiastical laws, known as the "Law of the Northumbrian Priests," belonging probably to the ninth or tenth century, and relating of course to the north of England, we find the following enactment (§ 54): "If there be a frith-gaard on any one's land, round a stone, or a tree, or a well, or any folly of this kind, then let him who made it pay the fine for a breach of law, half to Christ and half to the land-lord; and if the land-lord will not aid in levying the fine, then let Christ and the king have the fine." The primary meaning of the word *frith*, in Anglo-Saxon, is *peace*; but it means, in its application here, the freedom or sanctity of a place into which nobody is allowed to intrude or trespass, and *frith-gaard* signifies simply a consecrated yard or inclosure. We cannot but think it probable that this consecrated inclosure was the circle of stones round the object of reverence, which thus we find the Anglo-Saxons raising at a comparatively late period, and the Cornish Welsh may have continued to erect such objects at an equally late date. The tree would of course have disappeared, and left a circle with nothing in the middle; the central stone would often remain in its spot, and was probably of much earlier date. Our untaught ancestors were in the habit of paying a popular worship to such ancient monuments; and we ourselves have seen in the wild country, in the interior of North Wales, a well which was surrounded by what our antiquaries have been accustomed to call a Druidical circle. It is probable that the Anglo-Saxons would call the circle of stones round an early grave the *frith-gaard*; and it is curious that the Germans, in whose language the Anglo-Saxon word takes the form *fried*, and *hof* is equivalent to the Anglo-Saxon *gaard*, or *yard*, still use the word *fried-hof* for a churchyard.

The very slight traces of early legends, relating to cromlechs and circles, all imply places of interment; but there are more modern legends of a very fanciful description. According to these legends, circles or groups of stones, in most parts of England, are supposed to represent men or women who have been miraculously changed into stone for some transgression against the commands of the Church, especially for working or playing at improper games on holy-days or Sundays. There was a very common legend in the later middle ages how a party of maidens danced on a saint's day during church service, and underwent, in different forms of the legend, various punishments. Throughout Cornwall this legend has been universally attached to these stone circles, which are said to be maidens, who for transgressing in this way were transformed into stones, and the ordinary Cornish name for them is *dawns-mén*, the stone dance. It must be remembered that the popular dance in the middle ages, called the carole, was danced by people taking hands in a circle. Such is the legend told of the well-known *Dawns-mén*, in the parish of St. Burian, which sometimes goes by the name of the *Merry Maidens*; and the circle at Boscowen-ûn is also popularly known as the *Nineteen Maidens*. In the former instance two upright stones at a short distance from the circle are called the *pipers*, and are supposed to be the two men who played the music to the dance. The cromlech, or rather the large slab forming its cap-stone, is popularly called the *quoit*, and sometimes the *giant's quoit*, on the supposition that the primeval giants who inhabited this district amused themselves with playing at quoits with them. There are also circular enclosures, surrounded by a sort of low stone of wall instead of a circle of stones, which are evidently of great antiquity, though it would be useless to attempt to conjecture to what date they belong, or what was their purpose. The peasantry call them *Plân-an-guare*, the place of sport, apparently under the idea that they were amphitheatres; perhaps, indeed, they were in later times adopted as places for games and sports. In the same way it would with our present knowledge be quite in vain to attempt any explanation of the object of the great upright stones, such as that at

Tregonebris. In a field adjoining that containing the northern part of the circle of Boscowen-ûn, a little distance to the north-west, there is a large circular pile of immense blocks of granite, which may perhaps be partly the natural rock cropping out of the ground, but which presents a degree of regularity which seems to indicate the interference of the hand of man. It is of considerable extent, and offers from its summit a very extensive view over the surrounding country; but it is impossible to say for what purpose it has served, if it served for any purpose. It is marked in the Ordnance Survey map, where it is called *Creed-Tol*.

From this spot we can regain our road to the Land's-end either by walking direct across the top of the hill through high fern and furze, which is equivalent to walking through a turnip-field in autumn, or perhaps rather worse, especially when wet; or we may descend the hill to the west, cross a little stream, which is done by leaping, and walk across a field to a farm-house called *Leha*, from whence a short lane takes us into the road just where this stream crosses it. It is the last stream of water we shall meet on our journey. Water is rare in this Land's-end district, and after we have quitted Penzance, we meet with only six very diminutive streams in the whole distance of full ten miles to the Land's-end, and this last is little more than half way. The scenery, too, is far from interesting, for it consists of a succession of not very lofty swelling hills, the outlines of which present bare curved lines intersecting each other, and a house, and especially a tree, is only met with at rare intervals in the valleys. The remainder of our walk to Sennan, which lies along lower ground, is equally uninteresting, and we quicken our pace that we may reach the end of our journey in time to witness what promises to be a beautiful sunset. Another ascent is surmounted, and we enter the village of Sennan, which occupies the top of the hill which, gradually sloping towards the west, terminates in the cliffs which form the Land's-end. We have crossed from sea to sea the last peninsula of England, and a variety of circumstances remind us that we are approaching the western extremity of our island. Penzance was the westernmost town in England; and Trevescan, to the south a little westwardly of Sennan, is the most westerly village. Sennan, though it cannot boast of being either the most westerly town or village, has long had the reputation of possessing the last inn in England; but rivalry in trade has reached even the Land's-end, and some wretched speculator has deprived Sennan of its glory, and at the same time desecrated what ought to be one of the most solemn spots in the country, by raising on the summit of the hill just above the Land's-end a most unsightly building in the form of a new public-house. This sacrilegious intrusion seems to have been encouraged by the increasing flow of visitors to the old inn in the village, which was formerly a very modest building by the road-side, with a sign ingeniously contrived to tell a double story, as on the side towards the land it was described as "The Last Inn in England," while to those coming from the sea it proclaimed itself "The First Inn in England." Prosperity, it may be supposed, caused the proprietor to add a new larger house to the old smaller one, without destroying the latter or displacing the old sign; but a new inscription, on a large scale, placed on the western face of the new building, describes it as the "First and Last Inn in England." Here is a sketch of it as you view it on entering the village from the sea.



The First and Last Inn in England.

We determine on patronizing the "First and Last Inn," in preference to its new rival, enter for a moment to secure beds, order our supper, and ascertain the shortest way to the object of our pilgrimage, and then hurry onwards. Whoever expects to find some object of striking grandeur and beauty in the Land's-end will be disappointed, for this celebrated promontory consists only of a very undulating line of rather low cliffs, broken into the hill of granite by the incessant beating of the waves of the Atlantic during countless ages, but far inferior in pictorial effect to many a coast scene which is much less talked of. But there is something picturesque in the manner in which its broken masses of granite rise up like vast half overthrown columns, or lie wildly piled upon one another; and it is the last point of our island, and looks bravely on the wide ocean, although ocean often visits it in none of his gentlest humours. When this does happen, the battle and roar of waves over the rocks which lie scattered in the sea around like so many outposts, and in the caverns with which the granite fortress is undermined, are said to be sublime far beyond description. We had not the fortune to see old Ocean out of temper, for he was as gentle and smooth as ocean possibly could be; nor did we miss the setting sun, though an unfriendly cloud interfered and

marred in some degree the beauty of the scene. The Atlantic lay spread before us like a smooth surface of dark marble, with the Scilly islands dotted on its horizon, and its uniformity broken under our feet by the masses of sharp rocks, which rose here and there above the water, and by the lines of the white foam which skirted them. As the sun disappeared, and dusk became thicker, the horizon was no longer marked except by the light-house of St. Agnes among the Scilly islands, which sparkled like a distant star; and the nearer light-house, on the rocks called the Long-ships, threw a beam upon the water which we should otherwise only have recognized by the lines of foam which seemed to become longer and whiter, while everything else was obscured in darkness.

We returned to Sennan, ensconced ourselves in the "First and Last Inn in England"—may it be the last of its sort! for we found wretched accommodation,—supped upon eggs and rancid bacon, which we were informed were the only provisions, in addition to bread, in the house, slept very uncomfortably in a two-bedded room, had our supper repeated by way of breakfast next morning, and were made to pay extravagantly dear. When will country innkeepers be brought to understand that their true interest in the long run is to treat their guests well and charge them moderately?

After breakfast we returned to Penzance, and, as we only literally retraced our steps, we have little more to add. Before leaving Sennan, we should remark that in its precincts there is a very large stone which is called the "kings' table," on which it is said that three kings, who one day made a journey together to see the Land's-end, took their dinner, which we may suppose that they carried in their wallets; whereby we understand that kings, in those primeval days, paid less attention to ceremony than during our known historical periods.

Two characteristics of Cornwall will be remarked in the above sketch of Sennan. First, in the field over the wall, the manner of arranging the wheat in the fields in a sort of ricks about twelve feet high, which is practised all over Cornwall and in the west of Devon, on account of the prevalence of wet, for the wheat is so placed in the rick that the wet runs off without penetrating. Next, the wall itself, built of large, long stones, placed upright, with a line of smaller stones along the top. This is one description of Cornish hedge in the Land's-end country, but many of the stone hedges are larger, and built much more irregularly, consisting of masses of stone—granite, of course—of such magnitude as to excite our wonder how they could have been moved into their place—absolute examples, as far as style goes, of Cycloean architecture. I give a sketch of a bit of hedge in the neighbourhood of Boscastle, as an example.



A Bit of Cyclopean Masonry.

The weight of many of these stones must be so great, that I would willingly have asked one of the local farmers by what mechanical means they moved them; but we met with no farmer to answer our question, for through the whole of this stone district, the only samples of the agricultural population we encountered were two women on the road, and one in a house where we sought information as to the direction of a cross-road, and none of them seemed very capable of holding anything like a rational conversation with us. Suffice it to say that we found in these modern walls good examples of most of the different styles of ancient Cyclopean architecture acknowledged by archaeologists, sufficient to convince us of the vanity of any attempt to fix a difference of dates between what are called old British remains by the different styles in which the stones are put together. It is a circumstance which depends on the character of the locality; and the use of these large stones may perhaps be explained by the difficulty of breaking granite, and by the consequent necessity of using the pieces in the shape in which they are found. The general use of this character of building in this part of Cornwall has been remarked often. Small houses are thus built of enormous masses of unhewn stone, and sometimes even a single slab forms the covering or roof of a shed or outhouse.

FEMALE.—The following are the indignant remarks of a servant-maid, in "Ashcombe Churchyard," upon being told "that females are not to attend the bell when lords are in the parlour." "Females, indeed! I wonder what they would do without 'females.' They might know by this time that 'tis we who keep the whole world in prosperity and order. We attend them before they are born, and at their birth, and for many a year after, and we send them out into life lusty and strong, and well reared, only that they may kick and trample on us afterwards, and say they are ashamed of having us seen."

Reviews of Books.

EARL GREY.*

It can hardly be doubted that the biography of a distinguished man, and most especially of a distinguished statesman, ought never to be written by a member of his family. In his lifetime he must inevitably, as a member of a party have been concerned in many matters which in his time were, and, if of permanent importance, probably still are, matters of controversy. His conduct certainly, in all likelihood his motives, have been called in question, and the justice or injustice of such charges cannot possibly be impartially discussed by a near relation, whose judgment, not only as to the deceased statesman's character, but also as to the merits or demerits of his measures, must be greatly biased by a natural and justifiable prepossession. And this abstract opinion receives the strongest possible confirmation from General Grey's preface to the volume before us, in which he openly avows, that "he does not pretend to an impartiality which he should be ashamed of feeling" (p. 9). It must be confessed, that the task which he has thus undertaken with such admitted conviction of his unfitness to discharge it, could not well have been executed by any one in his position with more taste and delicacy than has been exhibited by General Grey. Yet, again, these good qualities in the author only increase the embarrassment of the reviewer, who may find his inclination to question the accuracy of some of the statements, or the soundness of some of the opinions advanced, crossed and impeded by the indulgence or even respect which he must feel for the motives which dictated the incorrect assertion, or inspired the too partial judgment.

The title of General Grey's book does not give a very correct idea of its contents. It is called "Some Account of the Life and Opinions of Earl Grey;" but it stops short at his separation from Lord Grenville in 1817, so that it contains no mention whatever of the most important part of his career, indeed, of the only part to which he owes a prominent place in the chronicles of his country, his Ministry of 1830, the most momentous era in her annals since the Revolution, and one, the transactions of which have stamped an indelible character on all her subsequent policy from that time to the present day, and on all her future history for ever.

Among the merits of General Grey's volume must be mentioned one which, at the present day, is of the rarest,—its brevity; and this, perhaps, disentitles us to complain of some very remarkable omissions, such as the suppression of the fact that so vehement at first was Mr. Grey's admiration of the French Revolution, even in its wildest excesses, that, on the occasion of the murder of Louis XVI., he entered the House of Commons in his usual dress, though he was nearly, if not absolutely, the only member of Parliament who omitted to mark his detestation of the crime that had been committed by appearing in mourning. As he not long afterwards declared that he would rather live under Caligula or Nero than under the existing Government of France, it is probable that he speedily repented of the indifference which he displayed on this occasion; and if he did, he no doubt confessed it, since there was no part of his character more amiable or more praiseworthy than the candour with which he often acknowledged errors into which he had been misled; and, if in subsequent years he did disapprove of his conduct on this occasion, General Grey would have done a service to his memory by recording the fact. It is a greater blemish that the General reproduces, with manifest approval, his father's prejudices against some of the most eminent of his contemporaries, especially against Canning, who, after Fox's death, was by far the most eminent of them all; who had not only every quality requisite to make a great Minister, but who also in most points of policy agreed with Lord Grey; particularly in the great matter of Roman Catholic Emancipation, which, as General Grey shows, his father was wont to consider the most important of all questions of domestic policy; and yet who was treated by Lord Grey with an unvarying hostility, which, dangerous as it is to impute motives, one can hardly avoid imputing in some degree to jealousy (perhaps unconscious) of Canning's unrivalled eloquence, there being no other living orator to whom Lord Grey himself could not be compared with advantage.

Charles Earl Grey, the second peer who bore that title, was the eldest son of General Sir Charles Grey, an officer who had gained some distinction as Commander-in-Chief in the West Indies, at the time of the reduction of Martinique and others of the West Indian Islands, who was raised to the peerage as Baron Grey by Mr. Addington, in 1801, and was further promoted to an Earldom in 1806 by the Ministry of which Fox was the principal member, and in which his son held the post of First Lord of the Admiralty. The father took no prominent part in politics; but the son, on his arrival at man's estate, at once plunged into them with unusual eagerness. His uncle, Sir Henry Grey, of Howick, was a man of considerable property, and, as his presumptive heir, Mr. C. Grey was returned as member for Northumberland at the general election of 1786, when he was only twenty-two years of age. His first appearance in the House of Commons was thoroughly indicative both of his qualifications for a high place in the councils of his country, and of the deficiencies which, to some extent, disqualified him for the highest. He at once approved himself an orator of as high a class as mere declamation could make; he showed himself, at the same time, utterly ignorant of political economy, and a reckless follower of his party; echoing all the unreasoning, in the present day, one would almost say wicked rhapsodies, which Fox, out of mere hostility to Pitt, poured forth against the commercial treaty with France, irreconcileable enmity to which country he pronounced to be the fixed principle, and very nearly the duty of every true-hearted Englishman. General Grey's language respecting this portion of his father's career is as candid as could be expected; he admits his father's ignorance of, and distaste for, all questions of commerce and finance; and confesses that in this and many other instances the devotion with which he supported the principles of Fox's

* Some Account of the Life and Opinions of Charles, second Earl Grey. By Lieutenant-General Hon. C. Grey. Bentley. 1861.

party led him "into participation in measures, or into the adoption of language, of which his maturer judgment disapproved."

It was some tribute to the oratorical ability which he had displayed on this occasion, though not so remarkable as it would be at the present day, when no one is admitted to a prominent position at so early an age, that he was nominated by the House of Commons one of the managers of that impeachment of the great Governor-General of India which stains the history of those years; but here he was brought into such close comparison with Burke and Sheridan, that his speech attracted no particular notice, and failed to add to his reputation. General Grey is very brief in his summary of his father's parliamentary career till the end of the century; though the division which the French Revolution caused in the ranks of the Opposition added considerably to his importance as a member of that section of the party which still adhered to Fox. He tells us little more than that he was at all times diametrically opposed to Pitt's Government, resisting even the Union with Ireland, a measure which alone might suffice to place that Minister's glory on an imperishable foundation, as an act of profound wisdom, fraught with equal benefits to both the countries affected by it. In real truth, so unreasoning at this time was the vehemence of his opposition to the Ministry, even out of Parliament, that he entered into at least one of the associations formed on principles of sympathy with the French revolutionists, becoming a member of the Society of the Friends of the People, which even Fox abstained from joining. General Grey defends this step, as being adopted "in a spirit *conservative* of the Constitution," since the objects of the society, as he states them, were solely those "of supporting those constitutional reforms and changes which were needed for the removal of acknowledged anomalies and abuses in our institutions;" but he himself supplies a refutation of this view in his confession that his father in later years repented having become a member of it, and blamed Fox for not having used his influence properly with his followers, when a single word from him would have kept them, or at least himself, "out of the mess." It was very much in consequence of his position as a member of this society, that he took a prominent part in pressing the question of parliamentary reform, after Pitt, its original champion, had abandoned it for the time, wisely discerning that a moment when the whole continent was convulsed with actual or apprehended revolution was not one for making innovations on our own constitution, however desirable amendments of it might be at a period of greater tranquillity. And, on the occasion of the Union, which, as we have already mentioned, Lord Grey (to give him at once the title by which he is best known to the present generation) opposed with the blindest vehemence, he made a singular attempt to carry what might be called a separate Reform Bill for Ireland, contending that the Irish members would afford a certain and important accession of force to every Ministry; and moving, therefore, that "it should be an instruction to the House to guard against the increase of the influence of the Crown in the approaching Union," the measure by which he proposed to guard against it being, as he explained it, a very extensive disfranchisement of corrupt or unimportant boroughs. A singular proof of Pitt's magnanimity and constant desire to unite talent of every kind in the service of the country is supplied by a fact mentioned by General Grey, but which we never saw stated before, that, in the course of 1796, the Minister made overtures to Lord Grey to join his Government—overtures which, according to a letter from Lord Grey, quoted at p. 59, were rejected, because Pitt refused to remove the existing Irish Ministers. Negotiations with the party in general had failed, as is well known, a year or two before, through the preposterous arrogance of Fox; and Lord Grey certainly, on his own showing, gave proof of a temper in no respect more moderate when he expected his services to be purchased by the removal of so able a governor as Lord Camden, at a time when not only was a violent political agitation disquieting the whole length and breadth of the island, but when it was known that an early invasion of it was one of the foremost projects of the French Directory.

His opposition to Addington's Government was as uniform as his hostility to Pitt, he again outrunning Fox in his vehemence; though it must be added, to the credit of his penetration, that he seems to have taken a more accurate view than that statesman of the feelings of the French people, and of what, at the moment, guided those feelings, the disposition of the French consul, whom Fox preferred to believe really desirous to maintain peace with this country, while Lord Grey, with a truer sense of our national honour, thought "the conduct of the French Government wantonly offensive to us." Yet his penetration and proper sensibility on this point, which led him to express the "strongest indignation at the principles of the consular government," only serve to place the blindness of his party spirit at this time in a more conspicuous light, since we find him, in spite of the opinions which he thus revealed in his letters to Fox, opposing the renewal of the war even after the unparalleled insults which Buonaparte had offered to our ambassador. An enormous majority scouted his arguments, and approved of the renewal of the war. But Addington was not long deceived as to the opinion generally entertained of the weakness of his Government, and wanting support, and being offended with Pitt, made indirect overtures to Grey. Again they failed through his impracticable arrogance. His reply, as stated in his own words, was "that he would not negotiate on any ground but that of having a majority in the Cabinet;" and ultimately, as is well known, Addington, as Fox expressed it, "ran away," and his Ministry was replaced by Pitt's last Government.

Pitt's endeavours on this occasion to form a junction with the Whigs, and to overcome the disapprobation with which George III. looked upon Fox, to whose profligate teaching and example he attributed many of the errors of the Prince of Wales, have been often related. There is, perhaps, no part of Fox's conduct more creditable to him, than the desire he expressed that his friends should acquiesce in the King's objections to himself, and, at so critical a time, aid in strengthening the only possible Government that could be formed. On the other hand, it was natural that those who prided themselves above all things on being his followers should refuse to submit to the proscription of their chief; but we can hardly understand General Grey's praise of Lord Grenville for breaking with

Pitt on that ground. Nor can we conceive how (while quoting Lord Melville's letter to Pitt, in which he urges the necessity of "collecting all the talents, vigour, and experience of the country in one general mass of energy and action," and consequently of coming to an understanding with Fox as well as with Lord Grenville,) he can yet allow himself to throw a doubt on Pitt's sincerity in the negotiation. Lord Grenville's real motive, it is hardly possible to doubt, was jealousy of Pitt's vast superiority, not only of ability, but also of influence with his party; the only consideration which ever steadily actuated any member of the Grenville family appearing to have been an unvarying conviction of their own unequalled importance, and of the great glory the country derived from being the parent of so important a race. The events of 1804 had led, almost inevitably, to an union between Lord Grenville and the Whigs, and, on Pitt's death at the beginning of 1806, they came into power together; Lord Grenville becoming First Lord of the Treasury; Fox, Foreign Secretary; and Lord Grey taking the management of the Admiralty, which he exchanged, in the autumn, for Fox's office, when the death of that statesman left him the undisputed chief of the Whig party.

From the period of his becoming a Minister of the Crown, Lord Grey's character seems to have undergone a most favourable change. Previously his career in Parliament had been, with but few exceptions, factious and intemperate, and his personal pretensions unwarrantably arrogant. But the cup which intoxicates so many, sobered him; and from the day of his acceptance of office his conduct was dignified, patriotic, and statesmanlike; and, with the exception of his behaviour towards Canning, to which we have already alluded, uniformly free from all appearance of personal bias or of paltry or ignoble motives. The transaction which led to the ejection of Lord Grenville's Ministry from office was creditable to their statesmanlike views, and to their consistency, Lord Grenville and Lord Grey, in common with Pitt, Castlereagh, Canning, and all the ablest men of either party, had advocated the Emancipation (as it was called) of the Roman Catholics; Pitt, indeed, had intended to make that measure an inseparable accompaniment of the Union with Ireland, till he was forced to abandon the idea in consequence of the insuperable determination of the King never to consent to a measure which he mistakenly fancied inconsistent with the obligations imposed on him by his Coronation Oath. The bare idea of such a concession had very nearly produced a recurrence of his malady of 1789. And Pitt, being aware of the precarious state of his mental health, had resolved never again to moot the question during his Majesty's life-time. The Emancipation was also very unpopular with the country in general; the people being at all times easily excited to oppose anything which resembled the least toleration of Popery; and the manifest impossibility of carrying the measure had influenced Fox also to abstain from pressing it during the short time that he held office. The same considerations were not without their weight on the minds of Lord Grenville and Lord Grey; but as political disabilities were not the only grievances under which the Roman Catholics laboured, they hoped that the prejudices which influenced the royal mind to refuse entire emancipation would not extend to concessions which conferred no legislative power. Accordingly, in March, 1807, Lord Grey introduced a bill into the House of Commons to enable Roman Catholics to hold commissions in the army and navy, from which up to that time they were debarred. The King had consented to the introduction of the bill, but subsequently became alarmed at its possible consequences, as likely to lead to, and to form a precedent for, further concessions; and he insisted not only on the Ministry abandoning it for the time, but on their entering into a formal engagement never again to propose any similar measure. Any such undertaking would clearly have been at variance with the plainest duty of a Minister, and the most valuable principles of the constitution; and they very properly refused to give it. As the King persisted in his demand, they had no alternative but to resign their offices, and the Duke of Portland was entrusted with the task of forming a new Cabinet.

The ejected Ministry had been somewhat absurdly spoken of by its adherents, as combining all the talents of the kingdom. The new Ministry could hardly be described in the same terms, since, with the exception of Canning, Lord Castlereagh, and the Chancellor, Lord Eldon, it contained no man of first-rate abilities, but the Premier himself was incomparably the weakest member of it. From the first, however, his Ministry proved far stronger in the House of Commons than the Opposition, and a general election which took place in the summer greatly increased their majority. So unpopular, indeed, had the No Popery cry made the late Government, that Lord Grey himself (who was still a Commoner, his father not dying till the end of this year), was compelled to relinquish his seat for Northumberland, which he had represented ever since his first entrance into public life, and was forced to be contented, during the short remainder of his stay in the Lower House, with representing Appleby, the same borough that had the honour of introducing Pitt to Parliament.

In the winter of 1807 his father died, and he was in consequence removed to the House of Lords. But his loss to his party, as its leader in the House of Commons, was severely felt, since there was no one else possessed of sufficient influence to keep its different sections in harmonious co-operation. Sheridan was by far the ablest man among them; but, though he still enjoyed the undiminished favour of the Prince, he had not the weight or steadiness of character requisite for a leader; Whitbread, who had married Lord Grey's sister, seemed eager to assume the lead, but his temper was most impracticable, and his capacity only just sufficient to enable him to make himself troublesome. At last family considerations caused Mr. George Ponsonby to be selected as Lord Grey's successor, but he was of far too negative a character for the post, and the Opposition gradually fell into an anarchy to which the Portland and Percival administrations in no small degree owed the continuance of their existence. Lord Grey, by remonstrances and admonitions, still endeavoured for a while to preserve union among them; but his efforts were so fruitless that he began to conceive a great distaste for politics, and at times felt a wish to abandon them altogether.

It is singular that his first speech in the House of Lords, like his *début* in the

House of Commons, should have been made on a subject where the side which he took was manifestly and ridiculously wrong. In the House of Commons, as we have seen, he rose to attack the treaty with France; in the House of Lords to condemn the seizure of the Danish fleet, the most sagacious and resolute measure that had been adopted for years by a British ministry; though, in excuse for the Opposition, it must be allowed that they were not, and could not, be aware of the information which had influenced, and which alone could have justified the Government in sending out the expedition to Copenhagen. It is more singular still that, after more than twenty years' practice as a public speaker in the House of Commons, and in spite of the certainty that he should be listened to with attention and respect, the idea of making his first speech in the House of Lords should have made him as nervous as an inexperienced youth. In one of his letters written just before he went down to the House, and quoted by General Grey, he speaks of "his hands being cold, and his having such a nervous trepidation that he really could hardly write. Fear," as he truly says, "is an unaccountable thing;" and we are as unable to account for his having had such a feeling as he was himself; but we may at least learn from his acknowledgment of his own sensations, that such nervousness is not always a proof of incapacity, any more than impudence is an indication of talent.

The Peninsular war soon broke out, and Lord Grey's conduct on the occasion is not very intelligible. He had been, as we have seen, loud in his condemnation of the renewal of the war; but, after we had once embarked in it, he was at all times desirous to see it conducted with that energy which could alone make it successful. Therefore he approved of our assisting the Spaniards as a general principle, and also of our beginning operations in the Peninsula by securing Portugal; but, at the same time, he condemned nearly every step which was taken to assist the Spaniards, or to secure Portugal; and was ever unwearyed in his disparagement of our great General; accusing the recoverer of Oporto of incompetency, the fortifier of Torres Vedras of rashness, and going so far as to oppose his receiving the thanks of Parliament for his victory of Talavera, which he pronounced to have been no victory at all, because Cuesta's obstinacy had prevented him from deriving from it all the advantage that might have been expected. It was well for Lord Grey's fame that his subsequent conduct showed that, however wrongheaded he may have been in this, his heart was in the right place. A year or two later, when an uninterrupted series of triumphs had proved the superior clearness of Wellington's political foresight, as well as the pre-eminence of his military skill, nothing could have been more handsome or more magnanimous than the manner in which he retracted his former depreciatory comments, and declared that his satisfaction in so doing was "in proportion to the pain which he had felt" in making them.

The duel between Lord Castlereagh and Mr. Canning had led to overtures being again made to Lord Grey, as also to Lord Grenville, to unite with the Tories in forming a Government; Lord Grey, however, refused even to confer with Mr. Perceval on the subject, a course which was approved by his personal friends, though, as Lord Grenville was willing to negotiate with Perceval, it would seem that Lord Grey might have done so too, without any sacrifice of his proper dignity. But, on the death of Perceval, it seemed, at first, likely that he would have the opportunity of forming a Ministry of his own supporters. On the establishment of the Regency it had been generally expected that the Prince would dismiss Perceval, and instal Lord Grenville and himself in the Government; and, though he had treated them with undeserved caprice in rejecting the answer to Parliament which he had commissioned them to frame for him, it had still been believed that, on the expiration of the restrictions on his authority, he would give effect to what he always alleged to be not only the dictates of his judgment, but the wish of his heart, by appointing those men to be his constitutional advisers whom he had always selected as his personal friends. That period, however, passed by without his making any change; but, when the murder of the Minister forced one upon him, he at once decided on endeavouring to substitute them and their adherents for the remnant of the Tory Cabinet; nor does there seem to be any ground for questioning, as General Grey questions, the sincerity of his desire to see them in his service. There certainly was nothing degrading to them in his desire to associate with them on equal terms one who, as Governor-General of India, had given proofs of the very highest administrative capacity, and whose political opinions were on all important matters identical with theirs. The intended arrangements were baffled, as is well known, by an absurd misunderstanding about the household appointments, and for many years after this Lord Grey abstained from taking any very prominent part in political business. This abstinence was principally caused by differences of opinion which arose between him and Lord Grenville; first, in the renewal of the war with France, when Bonaparte returned from Elba; which Lord Grenville approved of, but which Lord Grey denounced as "utterly unjustifiable;" and, secondly, on the coercive measures adopted by the Government, in 1817, for the repression of libels and seditious meetings; in which Lord Grenville supported the Ministers, while Lord Grey looked upon their policy as "no less impolitic than unconstitutional."

With the dissolution of the union between him and Lord Grenville General Grey's volume ends. He adds a short chapter describing his domestic life, in which he can say nothing of his amiability, his uprightness, his exemplary performance of all his social duties, which is not eagerly corroborated by all who knew him; but of the important passages in his subsequent career—his conduct on the Queen's trial, his attack on Canning, above all, his Government during the momentous years from 1830 to 1834, he postpones all notice, doubting whether he shall ever undertake to relate them; or, at all events, preferring to leave the task to his brother, the present Earl, if he can be prevailed on to apply himself to it. It is certainly desirable that we should have a complete biography of one whose administration has had so important and so durable an influence on all the future constitutional history of his country; though General Grey need not be afraid, as he seems to be, that the efforts that have been, and that still are, made at times to filch from him the credit of being the statesman to whose energy and wisdom the Reform

Bill is mainly, if not solely, due, will ever be successful with any but the envious or the ignorant. We think General Grey might fairly have claimed for him, what he, however, disavows—the *exclusive* merit of that measure. That in some instances he allowed his own judgment to be overborne by the more extreme opinions of some of his colleagues is undeniable; but the triumph of the measure was so far from being in the slightest degree due to their greater energy in the cause, that it would be more correct to say that it was his high character and the general esteem in which he was held by all parties, that procured the passing of the bill in spite of their intemperance. We have given our reasons for thinking that relations of the dead are not the fittest persons to write their memoirs; still the disinclination to entrust to strangers the letters and other documents necessary for the satisfactory performance of such a work is so frequent that we have often no alternative between having them written by relations, or not written at all; and if, as seems probable, such be the case in the present instance, we shall be unaffectedly glad to hear of General Grey's resuming his pen, convinced that from no one in his position can we possibly have his father's history related with more honesty, judgment, and candour.

"HILLS AND PLAINS."—AN INDIAN NOVEL.*

In the strict performance of our conscientious duty as reviewers we have performed a task in which, we venture to predict, we shall find but few followers. We have read every line of "Hills and Plains," from the first page to the last. It has been a sad and wearisome task, and the only good that can possibly result from it is to afford a timely warning to others to avoid the nonsense we have encountered, and to eschew the dulness that we have endured. Of one thing we are quite certain, that it would be difficult to find upon the shelves of any circulating library a work professing by its title-page to tell "a story" that could be compared with this new Indian novel. We know of but one celebrated composition in the English language in any respect like to it, and that is the "Beggar's Opera;" for there is scarcely a single character introduced that is not vile, mean, base, odious, and contemptible.

"Hills and Plains" purports to be written by a gentleman well acquainted with India; and if the world is to accept as perfectly true the descriptions of the Anglo-Saxon residents in that great dependency of the British Crown, not the slightest surprise ought to be entertained that there should have been that outburst, for ever to be remembered with horror, as "the Sepoy mutiny of 1857." According to the author's account of English officials in India, the Civil servants were ignorant, incompetent, tyrannical, and unprincipled; whilst military officers spent their days in idling, gambling, drunkenness, and horse-racing; the women were, if young, not remarkable for propriety, while the old were all heartless, scheming fortune-hunters for their unmarried daughters and nieces. Judging of European society in India by the author's description, and accepting all the characters he introduces as representatives of the classes to which they belong, the inference is inevitable. Such a society was rotten to its heart's core, and in itself a constant provocation to the natives to rebel against their worthless masters, wallowing in vice, and feeling no shame in sin.

We do not believe this. A perusal of "Hills and Plains" convinces us that no reliance is to be placed upon any statement contained in it; that the author is as incapable of imparting to others an accurate impression of what he has actually witnessed as he is incompetent to write a tale which shall be attractive and entertaining. If there be an art in composing a book in which no character is introduced that can excite the smallest sympathy on the part of the reader, the author of "Hills and Plains" may be regarded as a master in that most undesirable of all accomplishments for a novelist. His hero is described as an incompetent civil servant, who first runs recklessly into debt, and then as hastily and inconsiderately into marriage with a cold-hearted scheming woman, whose honeymoon has scarcely passed away, when she commences a flirtation with an infantry officer, the second most moral character introduced into the book, and who is finally freed from all his embarrassments by a rich relative, and then married to the hero's sister. As to the heroine, the best that can be said of her (to use the author's own descriptive words) is that she is

"A weak, vain, admiration-hunting, self-hugging, average style of woman."

All the male personages in this work that are not downright knaves, swindlers, blacklegs, gluttons, tyrants, and schemers, are fools; and all the women who are not intriguing, or match-making, or slander-mongering, are idiots. The author boasts that in his "very old story" there is no plot; and one may well wonder what pleasure he could feel in portraying so many disagreeable personages going through common-place incidents.

The motive to the composition of such a work as this would be a mystery, if every page of it did not display a peculiar "gift," on the possession of which the writer plainly prides himself, and that is, his complete knowledge of Indian vulgarisms and slang English phrases. He tells his "very old story" in slang, and he makes most of his characters talk nothing but slang—slang, we suppose, being the counter which passes as the current coin of wit in the Indian society with which the author appears to be best acquainted. In this respect, this superabundance of slang, the book before us may be regarded as a curiosity; and in order that it may be rightfully appreciated, we give a few specimens, taken from the first volume.

"They were not like other fellows 'mugging up' languages and 'sucking' far and near for appointments" (pp. 43, 44).

"When soldiering is a man's profession, and his regiment his home, he has no right, sir, to *cut both*, as so many fellows are doing. They must rejoin sooner or later, and pretty figures most of them *cut* when they do" (p. 44).

"Jarrun, of the 99th, who backed himself to drink a *wall shade* full of claret in two gulps" (p. 45).

"Mrs. Skewbald's *ramshackle piano*" (p. 55).

* *Hills and Plains; a Very Old Story.* In two volumes. London: Smith, Elder, & Co., 65, Cornhill. 1861.

"Mrs. Kookrie, herself an old married party of three and twenty" (p. 68).
 "Thoroughly 'screwed' as young Lound of the Civil Service was" (p. 108).
 "He never at this period made advances to representatives of the 'Spin tribe'" (p. 109).
 "First-chop turn-out this. Never saw anything like it in India" (p. 112).
 "D—d shame to stick him as the English merchants did" (p. 113).
 "He must have cut up devilish well" (p. 114).
 "This old female goes in for mild chaff" (p. 116).
 "I thought you told me, one time, she was sweet on Stapleton" (p. 151).
 "The fellows used, I know, to chaff Stapleton about her: only some dodge of hers, I suppose" (p. 152).
 "She has hooked him, of course" (p. 163).
 "Simkin is the correct tippie" (p. 169).
 "The brave Buffaloes would not hear of Ochteor 'standing' it, as he wanted to" (p. 169).
 "Mus drink simken—dam hard lines" (p. 171).
 "D—n his cheeky letters" (p. 190).
 "The confederates wrote to him most charmingly about the haul they were certain of making at the Chandneypore Grand Metropolitan" (p. 191).
 "You know I am active enough on my pins in the plains; my wife and I have had no end of a row" (p. 216).
 "Poor buffer! he had quite time to get out of the way" (p. 220).
 "Rayther, ready to gamble to any extent" (p. 221).

But enough of this sad and drivelling rubbish. A single additional extract will be sufficient to show the "polite conversation" in which the characters introduced discourse with each other.

"Women are all devilish well," the dissolute young misogynists would say to each other, "on a ball night, or at a picnic, with plenty of simkin going; but as for 'Sammying' and 'peacocking' about them from morning till night, thinking you are doing the devil and all, when they are laughing at you the whole time—oh, no, none for me, thank you. What's the turn up?" (p. 225).

This book has no one good quality to recommend it. The characters introduced are most of them very miserable specimens of humanity, and may be all described in four words of Martial:—

"Uxor pessima, pessimus maritus."

There is no pretence to a regular and connected tale in this "very old story;" and as happily it cannot be accepted as even an over-coloured delineation of life amongst the civil and military servants of the East India Company, we need not intrude upon our readers further details of "Hills and Plains; a very Old Story."

AN M.P. ON HIS TRAVELS.*

MR. SLANEY, M.P., has been in Canada and the United States, and he has published a book containing an account of his travels. The book is remarkable in many respects; but in none more so than for its perfect simplicity of style, manner, and getting up. When Lords and Commons resolve upon letting the world know they have been travellers, they, almost universally, present themselves before the public in handsomely bound volumes, illustrated with numerous engravings. Aided by some literary friend, their style is on a par with the magnificence of the binding, their words are sesquipedalian, and their sentences as gorgeous as the paper on which they are printed, and the pictures that accompany them.

Mr. Slaney, M.P., eschews all such vanities. He is not of the peripatetic order of philosophers; he is a philanthropist *sang pur*. He is always thinking of "the recreation of the poorer classes;" and as he has written a book, he seems to have resolved that it should be brought out in a Lilliputian form, and at a price that the humblest of his clients might become a purchaser. At the same time, Mr. Slaney seems to have come to the determination that none of his cleverest remarks shall be marred by the obscurity of elaborately rounded or carefully balanced periods—that his facts shall never be lost in a maze of words—but that his work shall be a perfect representation of his hurried journey—a combination of jolts and sudden exclamations—of rapid excursions and half-expressed ideas—of quick rides and hasty phrases. It is in the following manner the good gentleman commences his travels. Here he is, steaming down the Mersey, and inviting his readers to act as he did, and look about them:—

"After settling down in our cabin, looked up our varied group of passengers, I, Archer with me; Judge Haliburton and Mr. D. Burton together; young Arthur Lloyd, of Linton; and a mixed company of Americans, English, Germans, Canadians, &c.

"Few wants worth noting. Five meals a day. Illness of many; recovered about second day. Poor ladies suffer much—sad to see. Americans, if civilly treated, civil, intelligent, proud of their country, and of their ancestors, and ours" (p. 1).

See! all the facts that are here comprised within two brief paragraphs; and then let us remember with gratitude how they not only *could*, but *would*, have been expanded into some ten or twenty pages if they had passed through the hands of a practised bookmaker. Our author tells us—almost in the same breath—the names of his fellow-passengers, the manner in which they were fed, the annoyances of sea-sickness, and his pity for the ladies; making known at the same time to the world that strange, wonderful, and hitherto unascertained phenomenon, that if Americans are civilly spoken to, they will, most probably, return a very civil answer!

Justly, indeed, may Mr. Slaney, M.P., claim for himself the merit of writing none other than a matter-of-fact book. Here are neither marvels nor monsters of any description. There is nought else to be found in his pages than the unadorned narrative of a plain, good-natured, country gentleman on his voyage to and through strange lands:—

"Non hic Centauros, non Gorgonas, Harpyiasque
 Invenies: hominem pagina nostra sapit."

It will, however, we fear, be objected to Mr. Slaney's book of travels, that, in

* Short Journal of a Visit to Canada and the States of America in 1860. By R. A. Slaney, M.P., London: Hatchard & Co., 1861.

his desire to be brief, he is apt to be obscure, and occasionally unintelligible; that he goes on at such a pace that it is sometimes almost impossible to keep up with him; and that, when we come to the close of one of his multiform, closely-packed, and rapidly-penned descriptions, there is a chance of the reader not knowing exactly what the writer has been trying to express. As we find it difficult to convey an exact notion of Mr. Slaney's manner of narration, we shall endeavour to show, by an extract from the book itself, how it is that the author speaks of the town of Saratoga, and what were the various impressions it left on his mind. Here is a catalogue, "de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis," but still concluding with a grand climax—a repetition of the remarkable phenomenon that the Americans will give civil answers, when asked polite questions!

"Heavy, lumbering coaches, three seats, inside nine. Undulated country, sandy: distant mountains; crossed Upper Hudson at cataracts of Glen Fall, wild rocks, and spoiled by saw-mills and timber trash: land almost cleared, and improving. This great American watering-place is the fashion for gaiety and mineral waters, languishing ladies and pale smoking dandy Transatlantics: a wide-spreading place, with gay shops with awnings against the sun, and hundreds of all classes sauntering about. Vast hotels, 'United States,' 'American,' &c., with shady gardens to each, surrounded by very long wooden porticos, or colonnades: morning-rooms and refreshment-rooms, holding some thousand guests, with meals three or four times a day for multitudes, with black waiters. In the evenings, talking, walking, lounging, dancing, a little flirting, and the rest of it, or the balance, as they call it. Ladies a good deal dressed; men wear morning dark suits; a great deal of gazing and smoking, with legs upon chairs. The ladies have good eyes, some with a Spanish or gipsy look; rather pretty, but almost all pale. The men, often slender, good figures, but rather projecting noses, and features marked with acuteness, but not showing repose at all; almost all pale and sallow. The race of both sexes must lose tint by the father and all the men smoking so much. They seem communicative and civil, if courteously addressed, and like to talk of the Anglo-Saxon race, *theirs* and *ours*."

The most unexpected and unlooked-for novelty of all disclosed in this little book of travels is, that Mr. Slaney, M.P., dabbles in poetry! and that, when very much excited, he gives vent to his feelings in rhyme. We meet with more than one manifestation of his raptures in this line; but a single specimen will perhaps be deemed sufficient for the reader:—

LINES WRITTEN ON DESCENDING THE OTTAWA, SEPTEMBER 4TH, 1860.

"We leave the fair city of Canada's choice,
 In its welfare may millions of freemen rejoice!
 Whence the eye from the cliffs overhanging the stream
 Wanders over the woodlands which limitless seem,
 Whence the race of wild Indians is vanished and gone,
 And the white man is lord of the forest alone;
 With energy manfully working his way,
 Cheered by religion and liberty's ray.
 Success to his efforts in clearing the wild!
 His only companions—a woman and child—
 She will bless by affection and help him along,
 Whilst their young one will join in their evening song,
 Looking up from their home of contentment and love
 To the Friend of the lowly, who dwelleth above!
 Ottawa tide, as we float on thy breast,
 Whilst the sun of the Canadas shines on our rest.
 Let us pray for the thousands in woodlands around,
 Beginning their struggle in life's weary round:
 Success crown their efforts, and God be their guide,
 Till they sleep in lone graves by fair Ottawa's tide,
 And oft we may call to our thoughts when alone,
 These regions of solitude, traversed and gone.
 Amid these wild forests and lakes of the West,
 May exiles from home find a haven of rest!"

Considering the character and antecedents of the leading politicians of the United States—of the "stump orators" of the North, and the "cow-hiders" of the South—how simple-minded must this sexagenarian poetizer have appeared to the worshippers of the "almighty dollar" in the one place, and to the negro-driver in the other! What a country must those "cute" republicans suppose England to be, when it has sent, for many sessions, and to several successive Parliaments, a personage of the mental calibre of Mr. Slaney? What must they think of the English people who choose such a representative? And what must be their feelings of astonishment when assured that a stranger, though gifted with the eloquence of a Burke, and endowed with the wealth of a Rothschild, could not win a hundred votes from Mr. Slaney in a contested election? We do not venture to anticipate what a "go-ahead" Yankee, or a "bowie-knife" Southern would say when convinced of Mr. Slaney being one of the most popular and justly respected of English representatives; but in the certainty of the fact the wise and the reflecting will recognize one of the elements of England's greatness as an empire. In the preference for such a representative is demonstrated the fact that a good life here has much more influence than a good speech; that men are judged of by the deeds of their past life, rather than by their professions, their promises, or even their pledges as to what they will do in the future; that quacks, charlatans, adventurers, and trading politicians, though they may succeed for a time by pandering to popular passions in other parts of the empire, have seldom the smallest chance of succeeding in England.

We regret to find from Mr. Slaney's book that his travels in the United States were not very extensive. We could have wished, for the honour of "the old country," that he had been seen and spoken with by all the leading men both in the Northern and Southern States of what was, until lately, the Great Republic; for although we do not think he will ever win fame as an author, either in prose or poetry, or ever be remembered for his gifts of eloquence, still he is an excellent specimen of the "Old English gentleman," and precisely that sort of man of whom the honest, truthful, and just people of this country prove a sensible and practically wise appreciation, when they confide to his care their interests in the Imperial Parliament. There are qualities to be prized beyond those of the expert prose-writer, ready rhymester, or popular orator—and these are integrity, honesty, and benevolence. His constituents believe Mr. Slaney, M.P., to possess such qualities. He has laboured earnestly, zealously, and well for an improvement in the condition of the working-classes; he has been untiring in his efforts to have free parks established in the neighbourhood of large cities, for the recreation of those that toil. He is, without the slightest affectation, a philanthropist, and as

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such he is entitled to the public regard. He may rest assured the esteem universally entertained for him will not be in the slightest degree diminished, even though the public are convinced he cannot write prose like Lord Macaulay, nor poetry like Milton, Dryden, Scott, and Byron.

THE ROMAN CITY OF URICONIUM.*

MESSRS. CATHERALL & PRICHARD, of Chester, have become celebrated for the quantity and the great excellency of their stereoscopic publications, the most charming of all methods of preserving memorials of the beauties and characteristic scenery of different countries. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the series of stereoscopic views in North Wales which Messrs. Catherall & Prichard have published; and the series now in course of publication, illustrative of the Welsh Border, are equally perfect. It is to this latter series that the eight views at Wroxeter belong; and every one who has visited the place, which is now exciting so much interest in the world, can bear witness to the extraordinary truthfulness and effect with which the excavations on the site of Roman Uriconium are here displayed. They represent some of the most interesting points of view in which the extensive Roman remains, now uncovered, may be seen. The publishers have adopted the very useful plan of printing on the back of each a short description of the scene or object represented; and it is an advantage in the present instance that these descriptions, though necessarily very brief, have been written by the gentleman under whose direction these very remarkable discoveries have been made. The first of these views represents a part of the interior of one of the hypocausts, the most striking object in which is a mass of the concrete which formed the floor of the room above, still remaining in its position, supported by the columns of bricks. Another gives a most interesting view into the interior of a room which is supposed to be the workshop of an enameller, and includes the upright furnace and most of the objects of interest in it. The third slide gives a general view of the excavations in the baths, looking to the west, and includes the whole range of rooms which follow each other in a line from east to west, from near the eastern extremity. The fourth view is taken from the large hypocaust first discovered, and shows the remains of the arched entrance to the hypocausts from the external staircase, and the imposing mass of the Old Wall in the background. The next, which is again a more general view, has the Old Wall also partly for its background, and gives us a rather extensive view of the excavations in the public baths from the south-west; it includes the corner of the inner court, in which repairs, or new buildings, were going on at the time the city of Uriconium was destroyed, with one of the large stones which the stonemason was in progress of forming into ornamental sculpture, and which was left half wrought as he was working at them. The sixth slide, taken from what appears to have been the receptacle for the fuel of the fires of the hypocausts, gives us the great hypocaust, with the semi-circular end, the adjoining hypocaust, with the arched entrance already mentioned, and a more complete view of the Old Wall. The seventh is a general view of the ruins of the public baths, looking towards the east, including most of the principal rooms; and the eighth is a view taken from the W.N.W., and, having for its foreground the great room at the west end of the public baths, runs over part of the excavations to the south, and has for its background the artificial hill which is being formed by the earth from the diggings, with the range of the Wenlock mountains in the distance. Altogether, we can imagine no more pleasant memorials of the excavations at Wroxeter than this series of eight stereoscopic views; and they will have the more interest at the present moment, when the excavations have been resumed with activity, and we just learn that very interesting discoveries are already rewarding the zeal of those who are directing them.

BALLADS OF THE FRENCH BASQUE PROVINCES.†

THERE are, perhaps, hardly any more interesting monuments of the popular history of a people than its legendary ballads, which are handed down from father to son, sometimes during many ages; and this little collection of Basque ballads, which is understood to have been collected and translated by the well known scholar in mediæval literature, M. Francisque Michel, of Bordeaux, will be acceptable to all who take an interest in the history of popular poetry or in ethnology. Many of the stories of these ballads are touching, and, like most of the productions of this class, they are filled with snatches of true poetry. The first tells of a syren, or mermaid, who carried away a young Basque fisherman from his lover. The second is the story of a young and faithful Basque, who had become rich in his voyages, and returns to reclaim his first love in spite of her poverty. The Basques, it is well known, were among the first and most fearless adventurers on the ocean who visited the fisheries of Newfoundland and America. Others of these ballads consist of incidents in the perilous lives of the numerous smugglers on these coasts, and of others who gained their living in an equally illegal manner. The smugglers' adventures furnish the subject for several ballads in this collection. Another relates the ingenious device of a Basque bandit to deceive his guards and escape from prison. Others are simply love stories, and affecting interviews on the departure or return of a lover. Among them are much older traditions, such as the legend of the Lord of Durruty, which belongs to the age of the Crusades. But the chief and favourite heroes of the Basque ballads appear to be fishermen, smugglers, and, in the Spanish Basque provinces, banditti. On the whole, this little volume presents so much of striking interest, that we take a pleasure in making it known, though so briefly, to our readers.

* The Wonderful City of Uriconium; or, The Roman Remains at Wroxeter, near Shrewsbury. A Series of Stereoscopic Views, by F. Bedford; with Description of each View, by Thomas Wright, Esq., F.A.S. Chester: Catherall & Prichard.

† Le Romancero du Pays Basque. Post 8vo. Paris: Firmin Didot. London: Williams & Norgate.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTICES.

Mair's School List for 1861. Edited by Robert H. Mair. London: Mair & Co. 34, Bedford-street, Strand; and 22, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden.—We learn from the title-page of this bulky volume that it contains: first, "Lists of the Universities and Endowed Schools of the United Kingdom, and the Exhibitions and Scholarships in connection therewith;" secondly, "An Account of the principal Public Schools of France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, &c.;" thirdly, of "The Schools in the British Colonies;" fourthly, of "The Colleges in America;" fifthly, "A Civil Service Guide;" sixthly, "The Names and Addresses of the Principals of upwards of twenty thousand Private Schools;" seventhly, "The Results of the University Middle Class Examinations;" and, lastly, "A Local Index to every place mentioned in the body of the Work." We have tested the accuracy of the work by an examination of its contents where places are mentioned with which we happen to be best acquainted, both at home and abroad, and have found its information full, accurate, and satisfactory. We therefore presume that other parts of the book are carefully compiled, and recommend it as an authority on which reliance can be placed.

Misrepresentation: a Novel. By Anna H. Drury. Second Edition. London: Chapman & Hall, 193, Piccadilly.—This is a very clever novel; and no one can read it without being interested, and none rise from its perusal without feeling that it is as instructive as it is amusing. The only fault to be found with it is that "the heroine" is overwhelmed with unnecessary misfortunes, and that these are aggravated and prolonged by two accidents of the self-same kind, occasioned by the same person—that is, the hero's failing to take care of important documents confided to his charge. The moral of the tale is that, "if two honest, well-intentioned persons find they are lapsing into a quarrel, they ought never to confide to a third party, but have as soon as possible a *tête-à-tête* conversation." The neglect of this warning led to the estrangement of a pious mother and a virtuous daughter, and afforded to an artful woman the opportunity of resorting to a variety of devices, the success of which is shown in the title-page, and exposed in the progress of the work, under the general name of "misrepresentation."

First French Reading-Book, being easy and interesting Lessons progressively arranged; with a copious Vocabulary of the Words and Idioms contained in the Text. By Jules Caron, author of "The Principles of French Grammar," "First French Class Book," &c. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd, Tweeddale-court. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.—The object of this book is to make the learner familiar not only with the language of books, but also the language of conversation—to supply him with correct models both of "French as it is written" and of "French as it is spoken." The selections are carefully made; and, aided by a good dictionary at the end of the work, this little volume will be found most valuable for beginners as a complete "French Reading-Book."

Summer on the Lakes. With Autobiography. By Margaret Fuller Ossoli. And Memoir, by Ralph Waldo Emerson, W. H. Channing, and others. London: Ward & Lock, Fleet-street.—All who take an interest in the writings and career of the late Mrs. Margaret Fuller Ossoli, who, with her husband and child, perished by shipwreck on the 15th July, 1850, will, no doubt, hail with pleasure a volume devoted to her memory.

The White Scalper. A Story of the Texan War. By Gustave Aimard, author of "Indian Scout," "Freebooters," "Border Rifles," &c. London: Ward & Locke, 158, Fleet-street. We learn from an "advertisement" prefixed to this book that it may be regarded as "the conclusion of the present series of Gustave Aimard's tales." We are rejoiced to hear it. There have been many bad and many stupid tales translated before now from French into English, but we know of none worse than M. Aimard's productions. They have two of the worst faults with which novel or romance can be chargeable—they are at the same time dull and incredible.

Outlines of Grecian History. By Edward Walford, Esq., M.A., late Scholar of Balliol College, Oxford, and formerly Assistant Master of Tunbridge School. With Two very superior Maps of Ancient and Modern Greece. London: published for the proprietors by W. Kent & Co., Paternoster-row.

Outlines of Arithmetic. With numerous Examples and Exercises. By John Box. London: published for the proprietors, by W. Kent & Co., Paternoster-row.

Both these works belong to the same class of publications, bearing the general title of "Ince and Gilbert's Educational Series." The main object, we believe, of this series, is to make educational works at the same time very cheap, and equal in usefulness to the higher priced school-books. The value of such an attempt is strikingly manifested in the book confided to the care of Mr. Walford. It is easier to write a good history of Greece, than to produce a new work on arithmetic that can command public attention. Mr. Walford has taken advantage of the opportunity afforded to him. He has compiled a valuable and interesting history of ancient Greece. A better book could not be placed in the hands of a young student.

BOOKS RECEIVED.—*The Place of English among the Languages and Literatures of the World.* A Lecture delivered by Philip Smith, B.A. Crystal Palace Library, Crystal Palace, Sydenham. —*The Development of the Wealth of India.* By Thomas Hore, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co., and 23, Henrietta-street, Covent-garden, London. —*Church Rates.* What ought Parliament to do? By George Anthony Denison, M.A. London: Saunders, Otley, and Co., 66, Brook-street, Hanover-square. —*The Clergy List for 1861*, containing Alphabetical List of the Clergy in England and Wales; Houses of Convocation; Alphabetical List of the Clergy in Ireland; List of the Clergy of the Scottish

Episcopal Church; Lists of the Clergy of Colonial Dioceses; Foreign Chaplaincies; Public Schools; Alphabetical List of Benefices, with post towns, &c.; Cathedral Establishments and Collegiate Chapters; Ecclesiastical Preferments in the patronage of the crown, the bishops, deans and chapters, archdeacons, universities, colleges, and private individuals; Benefices arranged under their Ecclesiastical Divisions. London: George Cox, at the Ecclesiastical Gazette Office, 26, King William-street, Strand.—*Mysteries*; or, Faith the Knowledge of God. Two volumes. London: George Manwaring (successor to John Chapman), 8, King William-street, Strand.—*History of Wesleyan Methodism*. Vol. III. Modern Methodism. By George Smith, LL.D., F.A.S., Member of the Royal Asiatic Society, of the Royal Society of Literature, &c. London: Longman, Green, Longman, & Roberts.—*Popular Lectures on the "Essays and Reviews,"* delivered in various places, and addressed to the common people. By the Rev. John Cumming, D.D., F.R.S.E. London: Richard Bentley, New Burlington-street.—*"Essays and Reviews"* Considered in relation to the Current Principles and Fallacies of the Day. By Henry Arthur Woodgate, B.D., Rector of Belbroughton, Honorary Canon of Worcester, formerly Fellow and Tutor of St. John's College, Oxford. London: Saunders, Otley, & Co., 66, Brook-street, Hanover-square.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Messrs. Trübner & Co. announce for publication, in large folio, the *fac-similes* of certain portions of the Gospel of St. Matthew and of the Epistles of SS. James and Jude, written on papyrus in the first century, and preserved in the Egyptian Museum of Joseph Mayer, Esq., Liverpool, with a portrait of St. Matthew, from a fresco painting at Mount Athos. It will be edited and illustrated with notes and historical and literary prolegomena, in English, containing confirmatory *fac-similes* of the same portions of Holy Scripture from papyri and parchment MSS. in the Monasteries of Mount Athos, of St. Catharine on Mount Sinai, of St. Sabba in Palestine, and other sources, by the discoverer, Dr. C. Simonides.

On the 1st of October, Mr. Bailliere will commence a translation of Professor Ganot's "Elementary Treatise on Physics, Experimental and Applied, and on Meteorology," edited from the ninth edition, with the author's sanction, by Professor Atkinson. The work is to be illustrated with 600 engravings, and will be continued monthly until completed.

Mr. E. David Hearn has just completed the compilation of a "German Grammatical Speaking Vocabulary." In this work will be found sufficient grammatical information for all practical purposes, whilst all difficulty with regard to the conjugation of the verbs is removed, and the mode of forming the genitive and plural of nouns may be learned simultaneously with the noun itself, and without increased labour.

We hear from Rome that the tombs of Keats and Shelley are about to be restored. Mr. Severn, the newly appointed British Consul in that city, has resolved to give them his early attention. They have fallen into great decay. It is proposed to substitute a "Greek Altar," with a medallion portrait on the front of it, for the simple headstone which was placed over Keats' grave in 1821.

Messrs. Trübner & Co. have in the press a new novel, in four volumes, by Mr. Charles Reade, the author of "Never too Late to Mend," to be entitled "The Cloister and the Hearth," a matter-of-fact romance.

Notes and Queries informs us that the valuable manuscript collections of the late Joseph Hunter, F.S.A., will be offered by the family to the trustees of the British Museum. They consist of about fifty volumes, and a similar number of note-books, containing some curious bibliographical memoranda. There are several volumes of Shaksperian *adversaria*, as well as biographical notices of our British poets, entitled "Chorus Vatum Anglicanorum," which have been prepared for the press.

"County Society" is the title of a new novel announced by Messrs. Hurst & Blackett.

The long promised volume of "The Roll of the Royal College of Physicians of London," compiled from the annals of the College, and from other sources, by William Munk, is to be published on October 1st by Messrs. Longman.

The Religious Tract Society will publish early next month "The Spanish Peninsula," a sketch of its past history, present condition, and future prospects.

Messrs. Truscott, Son, and Simmons, of Suffolk-lane, Cannon-street, are the successful competitors for both (shilling) Catalogues for the International Exhibition for 1862. The "Industrial Catalogue" will be a list containing the names and addresses of each exhibitor, and a very brief description of his goods. It will be in one volume, demy 8vo., will be sold for one shilling in the Exhibition building, and will be produced wholly at the cost of Her Majesty's Commissioners. The "Fine Arts' Catalogue" will be the same as the "Industrial Catalogue" in size of page, print, and price, and will also be produced at the cost of Her Majesty's Commissioners. The number required to be printed for the first edition will be 250,000 of each catalogue.

Messrs. Houlston & Wright announce a long list of publications for October. Among them may be mentioned, "Rambles in search of Mosses," written by Margaret Plues; the "Universal Love of God and Responsibility of Man," by the Rev. Jabez Burns, D.D.; "Lyra Anglicana: Hymns and Sacred Songs," selected by the Rev. R. H. Baynes; "Thirty-three Years in Australia and Tasmania," by Mr. G. F. Lloyd; "The Bible Geography of the Old and New Testament," by Mr. Charles Baker; "Ten Thousand Wonderful Things," by Mr. E. F. King; and "The Wife's own Cookery," by Mr. F. Bishop.

The proprietors of the *Art Journal* have announced their intention of issuing, with that periodical, an Illustrated Catalogue of the Exhibition similar to their valuable Catalogue of 1851. The work will be edited by Mr. S. C. Hall. By making no charge to the producer, they hope to exercise "a judicious and necessary control in the selection of any object of Art that will be engraved."

An "official" Catalogue of the Exhibition is also announced; we cannot help thinking, however, that the Commissioners would do better by leaving to private enterprise what experience, in so many instances, has shown can be performed more efficiently than under the auspices of authority.

Mr. Elliot Stock, of Paternoster-row, is issuing a series of "Historical Papers" on the early annals of Nonconformity; their object is to lay before the public some of the less known facts in the history of the "Separatists" before the departure of the Pilgrim Fathers in 1620, which recent discoveries have brought to light. Six papers have already been issued.

The same house announces "A Hand-book of Revealed Theology," with an introduction by the Rev. C. H. Spurgeon; we presume an exponent of this celebrated preacher's views on certain controverted points in theology.

Messrs. Trübner & Co. will publish next month the long promised work by E. G. Ravenstein, on "The Russians on the Amur," being a history of discovery, conquest, and colonization, up to the Treaty of Pekin in 1860; with a detailed description of the country, its inhabitants, productions, and commercial capabilities. The late acquisitions of Russia on the confines of China, and along the sea-board of the Pacific, have attracted much attention. The country of the Amur has been visited by Schrenck, Maximowicz, Maak, and many others, but the results of their explorations have either been laid down in voluminous works, not attractive or even accessible to the general reader, or they are dispersed in periodicals. The public may look forward, therefore, to the publication of the above work with some degree of interest. It will consist of two parts; the one historical, the other geographical, statistical, and commercial. The former will give the history of Russian adventure on the Amur, in the seventeenth century, to the treaty of Nerchinsk; the Amur whilst in the possession of China; the labours of the Roman missionaries in Manduria; and lastly, the proceedings of Russia since the appointment of General Muravieff Amursky as Governor-general of Eastern Siberia, in 1848. The book will be profusely illustrated by woodcuts and lithographs.

Messrs. W. & R. Chambers do not contemplate abating the price of their old-established *Journal*, but promise at the beginning of the new year to give its readers a sheet of better material than has hitherto been possible under the old paper-duty.

Messrs. Saunders & Otley have in the press a work by Lord Robert Montagu, M.P., on "The Revelation of the Church and State, and the Nature and Effects of the Established Religion;" an Autobiography of Richard Cobden; the "Life of Wallace," by the Rev. J. S. Watson, author of "The Life of Richard Porson;" "Wheat and Tares," reprinted from *Fraser's*; a new novel, called "Vanity Church;" a novel, by Frank Fowler, entitled "The Secret of the House;" and a novel, called "The Old Manor's Heir."

A new work is in preparation by Mr. Lovell Reeve, entitled "British Land and Fresh Water Conchology," which is intended as a history of the terrestrial and huirtile shells of the British Islands, and of the animals which form them; to be illustrated with engravings of the shell of each species, drawn by G. B. Sowerby, and the living animals of each genus, drawn and engraved by O. Jewitt.

Mr. Copping, a gentleman well known in literature and the newspaper press, has a new novel ready, which will shortly be published.

A movement has been made in Australia with a view to raising a monument to Shakespeare by public subscription. For this purpose a number of members of the House of Legislation have been giving amateur performances of the "Merchant of Venice." In addition to the play, a prologue was delivered by the Attorney-General, and an amusing epilogue was spoken by Mr. Pyke, a member of the Legislative Assembly. This looks well for the recognition of literature in the colonies.

M. Hachette has ready a collection of proverbs and comedies by M. E. About, under the title of "Théâtre Impossible."

LIST OF NEW BOOKS AND NEW EDITIONS.

FROM SEPTEMBER 20TH TO SEPTEMBER 28TH.

Contourneau (Leon). The First Steps in French. 12mo. cloth. 2s. 6d. Longman.	Major and Son. Ladies' Assistant in the Formation of the Flower Garden. 4s. cloth. 10s. 6d. Longman.
Currie (J.). Principles and Practice of Common School Education. Post 8vo. 6s. Hamilton.	McNeile (Rev. H.). Sermons at Chester. Post 8vo. 3s. Whittaker.
Chambers's Household Shakespeare. Vol. III. Post 8vo. 3s. 6d. Chambers.	Phillips (J. A.) and J. Darlington. Records of Mining. 4s. Spon.
Desprez (Rev. P. S.). The Apocalypse Fully Filled. Third edition. 8vo. cloth. 12s. Longman.	Powerscourt (Viscountess). Letters and Papers. Ninth edition. Foolscape. 5s. Hamilton.
Delamotte (F. G.). Mediaeval Alphabets, &c. 6s. Spon.	Recreation of a Country Parson. Third edition. Post 8vo. cloth. 9s. Parker.
Elliotott (C. J.). Philippians, &c. Second edition. 8vo. cloth. 1s. 6d. Parker, Son, & Bourn.	Son, & Bourn.
Froemling (F. O.). Elements of the German Language. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Nutt.	Rogers (Rev. H.). The Man Emmanuel. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Seeley.
Gamgee (J.). Our Domestic Animals. First Division. 6s. Hamilton.	Rühles (C.). German Examination Papers. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Nutt.
Galbraith & Haughton-Green (J. R.). Cætererata. Fcap. 8vo. sewed. 5s. Longman.	Smith (Dr. Abbott) and C. C. Herman. Eastbourne as a Resort for Invalids. Crown 8vo. cloth. 2s. 6d. Stamford.
God and Man, and other Poems. Fcap. 3s. 6d. Houlston & Wright.	Thornbury (Walter). Cross Country. 8vo. cloth. 5s. Low & Sons.
Grant (J.). Adventures of Jack Manley. Fcap. 5s. Routledge.	That's It; or, Plain Teaching. Post 8vo. 3s. 6d. Houlston & Wright.
Hall (W.). Principal Roots of the Latin Language. Ninth edition. 12mo. cloth. 4s. 6d. Longman.	Trollop (Rev. W.). On the Liturgy and Ritual of the Church of England. Post 8vo. 5s. 6d. Whittaker.
Hazlitt (William) and H. P. Roche. The Bankruptcy Act of 1861. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Stevens.	The Seventy Weeks of Daniel. Second edition. 12mo. 1s. Hamilton.
Hills and Plains. Two vols. Post 8vo. cloth. £1. 1s. Smith & Elder.	Wills (W. G.). Notice to Quit. Three vols. post 8vo. cloth. £1. 11s. 6d. Hurst & Blackett.
James (Rev. J. A.). Works. Vol. XI., completing the work. Post 8vo. 7s. 6d. Hamilton.	Wood (Mrs. H.). East Lynne. Three vols. post 8vo. cloth. £1. 11s. 6d. Bentley.
	Woods (Rev. J. G.). Illustrated Natural History of Birds. 8vo. 18s. Routledge.